THE

NORTH AMERICAN

REVIEW.

VOL. XLV.

BOSTON:

OTIS, BROADERS, & CO., 147 WASHINGTON STREET.

1837.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

CAMBRIDGE:
FOLSOM, WELLS, AND THURSTON,
PRINTERS TO THE UNIVERSITY.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

CONTENTS

OF

No. XCVII.

Art.		Page.
I.	Standard Weights and Measures, ...	269
	1. Base du Système Métrique Décimal. — Mechain, Delambre, and Arago.	
	2. Bulletin des Lois. 1790 to 1825.	
	3. Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons, on Weights and Measures. 1814.	
	4. Report from the Select Committee of the House of Lords, on a Petition from Glasgow, relating to the Weight and Measure Bill. 1824.	
	5. Report of the Commissioners of Weights and Measures. 1819, 1820, and 1821.	
	6. Sundry Papers. By Captain Kater. Transactions of the Royal Society. 1824 to 1830.	
	7. Report of the New Standard Scale of the Royal Astronomical Society. F. Baily. 1836.	
	8. Reports of Mr. Jefferson and of Mr. Adams. 1793 to 1821.	
	9. Report, on the Comparison of Weights and Measures, to the Secretary of the Treasury. By F. R. Hassler. 1832.	
II.	Life and Voyages of Verrazzano, ...	293
	Delle Navigazioni et Viaggj, raccolte da M. Giovam-Battista Ramusio.	
III.	Miriam, ...	312
	Miriam, a Dramatic Poem.	
IV.	Latin Lexicography, ...	336
	A New and Copious Lexicon of the Latin Language; compiled chiefly from the "Magnum Totius Latinitatis Lexicon" of Facciolati and Forcellini, and the German Works of Scheller and Luenemann. Edited by F. P. Leverett.	
V.	South Sea Exploring Expedition, ...	361
	1. An Historical Account of the Circumnavigation of the Globe and of the Progress of Discovery in the Pacific Ocean, from the Voyage of Magellan to the Death of Cook.	
	2. Address on the Subject of a Surveying and Ex-	

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ploring Expedition to the Pacific Ocean and South Seas; Delivered in the Hall of Representatives, on the Evening of April 3d, 1836. By J. N. Reynolds.

VI. Letters from Palmyra, ... 390
Letters of Lucius M. Piso, from Palmyra, to his Friend Marcus Curtius, at Rome. Now first translated and published.

VII. Ancient History of the Netherlands, . . 408
Résumé de l'Histoire des Pays-Bas par Frédéric, Baron de Reiffenberg.

VIII. Miss Martineau's Society in America, . . . 418
Society in America, by Harriet Martineau.

IX. M'Cormac's Philosophy of Human Nature, . 460
The Philosophy of Human Nature, in its Physical, Intellectual, and Moral Relations. By Henry M'Cormac, M. D.

X. Miss Sedgwick's Tales, ... 475
1. The Poor Rich Man, and the Rich Poor Man. By the Author of "Hope Leslie," "The Linwoods," &c.
2. Live and Let Live; or Domestic Service Illustrated. By the Author of "Hope Leslie," "The Linwoods," "The Poor Rich Man, and the Rich Poor Man," &c.

XI. Critical Notices.
1. Grumbler's Miscellaneous Thoughts, ... 482
2. Henry's Discourse, ... 484
3. Walker's Introduction to American Law, . . 485
4. Winslow's Address, ... 488
5. Wrifford's Chirography, ... 489
6. Hayward's Discourse, ... 490
7. Lamartine's Discourses, ... 493
8. O'Shaughnessy on Electro-Magnetism, . . . 495
9. Sicilian Statistical Journal, ... 499
10. Peirce's Geometry, ... 500
11. Blunt's Shipmaster's Assistant, ... 502
12. Paine's Baccalaureate Address, ... 504
13. Sewall's Phrenology, ... 505
14. Fœlix's Law Journal, ... 508
15. Howard's Address, ... 508
16. Rich Enough, ... 509
17. Jomard's Present State of Egypt, ... 511

Quarterly List of New Publications, ... 513

Index, ... 521

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

No. XCVII.

OCTOBER, 1837.

ART. I. — 1. *Base du Système Métrique Décimal.* — MECHAIN, DELAMBRE, and ARAGO.
2. *Bulletin des Lois.* 1790 to 1825.
3. *Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons, on Weights and Measures.* 1814.
4. *Report from the Select Committee of the House of Lords, on a Petition from Glasgow, relating to the Weight and Measure Bill.* 1824.
5. *Report of the Commissioners of Weights and Measures.* 1819, 1820, *and* 1821.
6. *Sundry Papers.* By Captain KATER. Transactions of the Royal Society. 1824 to 1830.
7. *Report of the New Standard Scale of the Royal Astronomical Society.* F. BAILY. 1836.
8. *Reports of Mr.* JEFFERSON *and of Mr.* ADAMS. 1793 *to* 1821.
9. *Report, on the Comparison of Weights and Measures, to the Secretary of the Treasury.* By F. R. HASSLER. 1832.

THE weights and measures, used for the simple traffic of original and primitive nations, are always of simple, and probably always of similar origin. The length of the human foot, or of the palm, or a pace, or a span, or the distance from point to point of the extended arms, are measures of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

length most likely to occur at the early period of society; while, for capacity, the sewed skin of a domestic animal, and for weight, the weight of an ordinary ripe fruit or handful of grain, would afford a sufficiently accurate medium for the comparison of all exchanges necessary during the rude and pastoral age. But as civilization progresses, and as men become first agricultural, and then commercial, the necessity of fixing these relative values becomes more and more apparent, as well for the purpose of preventing frauds, as to ensure the results of trade, and render revenue, both public and private, certain and appreciable. It would also soon be discovered, that, in all civil commotions, the ordinary relations of value must, to a great extent, become subservient to factious purposes, and in this way abuses against the commonwealth be originated and continued. The Jack Cade of Shakspeare was no contemptible politician, when he ordained that "*there shall be*, in England, seven half-penny loaves *sold for a penny*, and the three-hooped pot shall have *ten hoops*." And in our own times, there have been found politicians of more faith and less conscience, who would have rendered tortuous the paths of public policy, by means not less direct than this.

Among infant nations, the standards of relative value are of course fluctuating and uncertain; the measures of capacity diminishing, in general, in proportion to the distance of the market from the place of manufacture, or of import; and the value of the monetary unit augmenting in an inverse proportion. An attention to fix and preserve these standards is the first evidence that the science of government is beginning to be understood; as, by judiciously controlling them, a nation gives certainty to its action, whether in peace or in war, prevents civil commotion, and can provide against any imposition of the higher upon the poorer classes. At the commencement of governments, when the first object of association is the security of the community, and war, of course, becomes the most honorable occupation, the civil authorities are always negligent of this function, and allow abuses to become fixed to an extent so vicious, as to be remediless, without severely wounding the commercial interest, depreciating the revenue, or hazarding a revolution, and disorganization of the State. And this being the case, we shall always observe, that in nations which have advanced regularly from barbarism to civilization, the era in their annals

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

marked by the greatest attention to the regulation of standard values, is always that of the greatest prosperity and refinement.

In England, the first serious attention to this subject seems to have been given in the year 1266, (in the reign of Henry III.,) when, "by the consent of the whole realm of England, the measure of our lord, the king, was made; that is to say, that an English penny, called a sterling, round, without clipping, shall weigh thirty-two wheat corns in the midst of the ear; and twenty pence to make an ounce, and twelve ounces one pound, and eight pounds do make a gallon of wine; and eight gallons of wine do make a London bushel, which is the eighth part of a quarter." This statute, which was afterwards copied into that of the thirty-first year of Edward I., (1303,) has been the basis of the present system of weight and measure in England, from which the standards in use among us have been derived. We may learn, from its provisions, without further authority, that at this period coin was taken by weight, and not by tale; a heavy grievance to the common people, when the standard of weight was so ill defined. We may also infer, that the English were still a warlike, something of an agricultural, but not yet beginning to be a manufacturing people; for had they then attained to any degree of the latter quality, the unit of length must at least have been mentioned. It is also evident from this statute, that, at this time, the ale and domestic spirit of the country had not yet become an article of commerce, as the gallon, or measure of liquid, is defined by the weight of wine. There may, to be sure, be some doubt of this, as at that time ale may have been measured by the bushel; the French *boisseau*, from which our word "bushel" is derived, indicating, by its termination, rather a wet than a dry measure.

The measure of length was not defined till the seventeenth year of Edward II. (1324), when it was ordained that "three barley-corns, round and dry, make one inch; twelve inches one foot; three feet a yard," [*ulnam*,] &c. But there was no attempt to connect the measure of length with the measure of capacity, till the thirteenth year of William III. (1701). The statute of that date declares, that "the Winchester bushel shall be round, with a plane bottom, eighteen and a half inches wide throughout, and eight inches deep." By an act of the following reign, a wine gallon, originally the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

eighth of a bushel, is declared to be a cylinder, seven inches in diameter and six inches deep, containing two hundred and thirty-one cubic inches.

The history of the introduction of the wine gallon among English measures is an example of the manner in which standards are deteriorated and corrupted, unless preserved by a strict surveillance on the part of the government. We have seen that, by the statute of Henry III., but one gallon is acknowledged throughout the kingdom, and this, too, called a gallon of wine. Yet it was discovered, about the year 1680, that it had long been customary to sell wine by a gallon varying from two hundred and twenty-four to two hundred and thirty-one cubic inches. In this way, the importers of wine paid duties on a gallon of two hundred and seventy-two to two hundred and eighty-two cubic inches, and sold by one of a capacity nearly one fifth less. And so fixed had this abuse become, that a special law was obliged to be passed, in the fifth year of Anne (1705), by which the wine gallon of two hundred and thirty-one inches is, for the first time, recognised as one of the standards of England. The original of the wine gallon, said to have contained about two hundred and twenty-four cubic inches, had been kept at Guildhall by the merchants of London. In relation to the discovery of this heterodox standard of the English vintners, there is something at once ludicrous and grave in the following extract from a report of a Committee of the House of Commons, in 1758.

"Your Committee observing that, by the evidence of the gaugers, the ale and beer gallon contained 282 cubical inches; and finding that, by all the statutes, down to the 5th of Queen Anne, wherever wine measure is mentioned, the legal standard gallon of the Exchequer is referred to, or understood; endeavoured to discover for what reason the wine gallon was reduced 51 cubical inches; viz. from 282 to 231. And upon inquiry of the Commissioners of the Excise, they communicated to your Committee, copies from their books, of a memorial from the Commissioners of Excise and Hearth Money, to the Commissioners of the Treasury, dated the 15th of May, 1688;* setting forth that all beer and ale had been gauged at 282 cubical inches, for the gallon, and other exciseable liquors, according to the supposed wine gallon at 231 cubical inches; but being informed, that the true standard wine gallon, ought to contain only 224 cubical

* Appendix 2. Report from Committee of the Commons. 1814.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

inches, they had applied to the Auditor and Chamberlains of the Exchequer, to examine the standard measures in their custody, and, upon examination, they found three standard gallons, one of Henry the Seventh, and two of 1601, which an able artist, employed by them, had found to contain, each 272 cubical inches; that, finding no wine gallon at the Exchequer, they had applied to the Guildhall of the city of London, where they were informed, the true standard of the wine gallon was; and they had found, by the said artist, that the same contained 224 cubical inches only; and they further represent, that the gallons of the other parts of the kingdom, used for wine, had been made and taken from the said Guildhall gallon.

"In consequence of this memorial, the Lords of the Treasury, the 21st of May, 1688, directed an authority to be drawn, for gauging according to the Guildhall gallon, which was accordingly done; but it does not appear that such authority was ever signed.

"After this direction, it appears that several merchants applied, that his majesty would be pleased to empower the merchants to sell as they were gauged, that is, according to 224 cubical inches to the gallon.* And the Commissioners of the Customs not following the new proposed method of gauging, upon the 12th of June, 1688, Sir Thomas Powis his opinion is taken upon it, in which he says, 'that having considered the proposal of the Commissioners of the Excise, concerning the gauging of exciseable liquors, and perused the acts of Parliament relating thereto, he cannot advise the prosecuting the proposal in regard of the hazard attending it; for if the usage of gauging be departed from, he knows not where we shall be, because resort cannot be had to the Exchequer for a standard, to which almost all the statutes refer, for there is none there but what the king will be vastly a loser by; secondly, Guildhall cannot be resorted to for a standard, for no law or statute refers to it.'"

We shall have some idea of the difficulty of preserving the relative value, in a system of standards, derived from the primitive usages of any nation, when we are aware, that in England, between the reigns of Henry III. and George II.,

* From this we should infer, that the merchants were gauged by a gallon of 224 inches. This was not the case. For in a suit brought, in 1699, against Thomas Barker, for having paid duties by the gallon, of 282 inches, instead of the ordinary wine gallon, the defence set up was, that the true standard of the kingdom was the gallon of the Exchequer, whereupon the Attorney-General agreed to withdraw a juror. The failure of this prosecution produced the act of 1705.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

thirty-nine distinct statutes had been passed, with the constant purpose of ascertaining and regulating the weights and measures of the kingdom; and yet, that so late as 1758, when the subject was first properly considered in the national legislature, a Committee of the House of Commons gave the following account of the anomalies and discrepancies, existing among the Exchequer standards.

"Your Committee observe, that if the standard bushel is to be taken from that remaining in the Exchequer, then it contains twenty-six cubical inches less than the bushel ought to contain, according to the dimensions, established by the act of King William, which is 2150 cubical inches; and, according to the size of the bushel, the gallon, or eighth part of it, should contain 265½ cubical inches, which is less, by five cubical inches and a half, than the standard gallon of the Exchequer; and the quart ought to contain 66·375 cubical inches, which is near four cubical inches less than the standard quart; the pint should contain 33.1875 cubical inches, whereas the standard pint contains 34·8 cubical inches.

"But as, by law, the bushel ought to contain eight gallons, if the standard gallon of the Exchequer be eight times filled, the contents of the whole will be 2168 cubical inches to the bushel, which is forty-four cubical inches more than the bushel used as a standard at the Exchequer." *

The provisions of many of the statutes, passed within the interval above mentioned, when the science of the country was not sufficiently advanced to come in aid of the civil authority, tended, in most cases, to increase the confusion and uncertainty. As instances of this, we may notice the liberties taken with the standard yard. By the statute of the fifteenth year of Henry VI., the *Aulneger*, or measurer of ells, is directed "to procure, for his own use, a cord twelve yards and twelve inches long, adding a quarter of an inch to each quarter of a yard." This statute marks the era, when the woollen manufacture had begun to be important, the provision being intended to make certain the hitherto vague custom of allowing the breadth of a thumb to each yard of woollen cloth, for shrinking. In the fourth year of Richard III., as if in contravention of this statute of the thumb, it is ordained, that "cloths shall be wetted before they are measured, and not again stretched." But in the tenth year of Anne,

* Appendix 2. Report from Committee of the Commons. 1814.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the elder statute is again followed, and it is enacted, that "each yard is to have an inch added to it, instead of that which is commonly called a thumb's breadth." These laws show the usual progress of legislation on such subjects, the most striking instance and specimen of which is perhaps found in the statute of the thirteenth year of Richard II., where unity of weights and measures is ordained throughout the kingdom, "except it be in the county of Lancaster, because in that county it hath always been used to have greater measure, than in any other part of the realm."

We have taken the example of the English nation, to show the ordinary course of legislation, as to standard values, because it will be found, with differences merely of denomination, to have been the history of similar changes, in every other country; and because the English measures, being synonymous with those in use among us, seemed, on that account, more applicable to a notice of the subject, as it presents itself here. That it is no easy matter to remedy abuses of this nature, will be evident from the fact, that, during six centuries, the English people, having constantly the same aim, to wit, that weight and measure should be uniform, have scarce yet reached their object; and, in attaining to the comparative certainty, which they at present possess, have been obliged to tolerate frauds and vexations, which were only discovered, after they had become fixed by prescription, and past cure; for "there is no custom, regulation, or institute in civil society, so difficult to be altered, as an established system of weights and measures, except, indeed, the language of a country."*

But if the progress of this matter in England should be of interest to us, as exhibiting the gradual changes, which are induced in the standards of an established government, while undisturbed and at peace, the operations in France are of still more interest, as showing what may at once be achieved by a nation, while in the act of changing the form of its civil institutions. In France, a radical change of the system of weight and measure was commenced, a project which could only have been successful during a state of revolution. We may conceive, when the decimal system was first promulgated in France, and the ancient measures declared to be illegal,

* Evidence on the Glasgow petition.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

that the mere mention of the toise, the louis, or the livre, would have been a political heresy, to be expiated only on the guillotine. As this was a measure, brought forward by the first national assembly, it was throughout considered as republican in its tendency, and, with few exceptions, gave an immunity to all those concerned in it. The new system therefore acquired a strength from the period in which it was proposed. It gave the young republicans another test, another sacrament in the new ritual. Had an interval of two years elapsed, the success of the experiment in France would, at least, have been questionable. And, in view of these facts, and being aware, from the examples of other nations, how difficult it is to change an establishment, even after it has become confessedly vicious, we should be better able to estimate, in a young country like our own, how important it is, to commence right, and adopt a convenient and well-arranged system at first. It has been said, that the evil arising from incongruity and uncertainty of measures, is "more imaginary than real; more felt by philosophers, than farmers, or others interested in practice; for as the contents of customary measures are generally known to all persons concerned in their use, the prices are regulated accordingly."* We do not believe this. Standard measures may indeed not be necessary to the large corn factors, or farmers, or merchants, in their dealings with each other; but they are not the less indispensable, to protect the lower and middle classes, the consumers in detail, from uncertainties and vexations, which it is the duty of every well-constituted government to avoid and prevent. The English corn factors, however, though they prefer to have in their own country as many different bushels as possible, admit, that in a colony, or a new country, the simpler and more unique the measure, the better.

The attention which had been given to this subject, both in France and in England, induced, at length, a proper consideration of it here. The federal constitution has made it one of the functions of the general government; and the proper establishment to be made was frequently discussed during the presidency of General Washington, and at his special call. At length, upon finding a diversity of standards of the same denomination, throughout the country, it was determined that

* Dr. Kelly's Evidence on the petition from Glasgow.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the standard to be adopted should be a mean of those then in use, and here the subject was suffered to rest for a long time. By repeated examinations and comparisons of the value and origin of the weights and measures, in general use, they were all found to have emanated from the English standards, of which scattered traces were to be found, in different parts of the country. The report of Mr. Adams upon that subject, in 1821, showed how much variety and uncertainty had been introduced by the lapse of time, and the want of proper standards. The great amount of the dealings of the government with its citizens at the custom-houses, and the legal stipulation, that the duties shall be uniform, produced, in 1830, a resolution of the Senate, directing the Treasury department to have a full and accurate comparison made, of all the weights and measures in use among the officers of the revenue. The execution of this comparison was confided to F. R. Hassler, Esq., who, in 1832, made an extensive report upon the subject, which is document 299, of the printed documents of that year. In consequence, Congress, in 1834, directed the Treasury department to have standards constructed for the several custom-houses. These standards are now in progress, under the superintendence of Mr. Hassler. *

Before, however, noticing the origin and execution of these standards, which are of course of more interest to us, than the measures of foreign nations, it may not be amiss to take a brief review of the more recent improvements in construction, and the various legislative acts of the elder countries; and to say something of the manner in which standards were defined and compared, when they first came to be considered by men of science.

In England, the parliamentary investigation of this subject, which lasted from 1758 to 1765, deserves notice more as having first directed the attention of the public to the diversity of standards then in use, and the inefficacy of the numerous laws enacted for their preservation, than for having provided any effectual remedy for the existing evils. The Report of the Committee of 1758 and 1759 is, however, characterized by soundness of view, and distinctness of purpose. They deprecate the existing diversity of standards;

* This paragraph is repeated, from a notice of the subject, in the National Gazette of June 9th, 1836.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and propose, that the yard of the Exchequer, as derived from a copy formerly made by Graham, for the Royal Society, should be made the unit of length; and that the ale gallon be taken as the base, for all measures of capacity. This report, in consequence of the prorogation of Parliament, was not acted upon; though a bill had been introduced, in conformity with its recommendations. The Committee also presented, with their Report, two copies of the yard of the Royal Society, made by Bird, with the extremities of the yard marked by dots on gold pins. One of these was sent to the receipt of the Exchequer, and the other (usually known as the parliamentary standard) delivered to the clerk of the House. This standard was in existence, until the fire of 1834, which destroyed the two houses of parliament. It had, previous to that accident, been accurately compared with the metre, and other measures, in the possession of scientific individuals; so that its value, even after its destruction, may be considered as very well ascertained. At this period, neither the Committee, nor any of the scientific persons, whom they consulted, seem to have thought of the possibility of fixing a standard of length, by comparison with any natural measure, or constant quantity, which could always be determined by some law of physics; but expressly state, that the measure of length "cannot be described in words, but by reference to some determined space, of which a model, or standard, is previously established." The labors of this Committee, though unsanctioned by the legislature, and producing no practical change or improvement, were nevertheless of much use, as showing that while the standards kept at the Exchequer, under the custody of the government, had from misuse and neglect become bent and uncertain, copies of the same pieces made by the Royal Society, for their own use, were still in good preservation, and might be relied on as authentic; thus directing the attention of the nation to their highest scientific institution, as the surest agent both to determine and preserve this species of evidence.

We are inclined to think, though it appears nowhere distinctly among the documents of that period, that the parliamentary investigation of 1758 – 1765 was intended mainly to restore the ale gallon, of two hundred and eighty-two cubic inches, as the standard upon which all the measures of capacity in the kingdom ought of right to be based; and that the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

project had grown out of the then commencing rivalry between the ports of Liverpool and London. The Lancashire measures being larger than those of London, and some of the London measures but very recently acknowledged to be legal, commercial jealousy would naturally seize upon this discrepancy, as a matter which might be turned to account. However this may have been, no law was then passed on the subject, and the matter rested till 1814. In the mean time, the French, being at once in a state of revolution and of war, began *de novo*.

The precise state of the French measures, previous to the revolution, does not now appear. That they were uncertain, incongruous, and imperfectly authenticated, may be inferred from the fact, that, under the monarchy, the subject had been repeatedly pressed upon the consideration of the government. Delambre, in his Preliminary Discourse, mentions it as a long existing evil. "The astonishing and scandalous want of uniformity in our measures," says he, "had long been a subject of complaint, with good men. More than once, propositions of reform had been submitted to the government, who had caused them to be examined. But, notwithstanding the favor of the ministers, and particularly of Orry, Controller General of the Finances, these propositions had always been rejected or forgotten." * The subject of a new system was first moved in the National Assembly by Talleyrand. Among the many important functions which this individual has been called upon to discharge, in the course of his long and eventful life, there can, we suppose, be but few, which have produced more important results than this. It gave a new and bloodless field to the energies of the *esprits forts*, which were then beginning to show themselves in France, which was to make her wars useful and illustrate her trophies.

The decree of the National Assembly is of May 8th, 1790; and the Proclamation of the King, of August 22d, of the same year. It ordains an exhibition of the old measures, but contemplates, for the basis of the new system, the length of a pendulum vibrating seconds, in the mean latitude of 45°. This determination the King is desired to make, in conjunction with England, and by a commission, consisting of an equal number of members of the Royal Society of London,

* Base du Système Métrique. Tome I. page 13.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and of the French Academy of Sciences. But, at this time, there was less of friendly feeling between the two countries, than had ever existed before. The English academicians would have regarded with horror, as well as doubt, any result derived from the most palpable premises, which could have been produced by Frenchmen. If report were not so often a romancer, we should have to suppose, that the same aversion obtains to a great extent still. When it was not long since suggested to a distinguished British astronomer, that some of the discrepancies of the trigonometrical survey of England might be reconciled by adopting a different elipticity for the terrestrial spheriod, the patriotic philosopher is said to have replied; "I know it; but to do so, we must take the elipticity of the French."

It does not appear distinctly, what measures were taken under the law of 1790. But the project was changed by the decree of the ensuing year, (March 30th, 1791,) which adopts the quarter of the terrestrial meridian, as the base of lineal measure; the ten-millionth part of it to be called the metre. It also directs that, to determine the value of this unit, the arc of the meridian, from Dunkirk to Barcelona, shall be measured. The measures of weight and capacity are connected with the unit of length, by being made the area, or the weight of distilled water at the maximum density, of submultiples of the metre. The Commission, appointed to execute the new measure, comprised a mass of talent, which has rarely, either before or since, been brought to bear on any one project. Borda, Prony, Mechain, La Lande, Delambre, La Place, Lavoisier, and Monge, were all named; the measure of the arc being confided to Mechain and Delambre. This operation was commenced in 1792, and had been prosecuted with zeal and success, for more than a year, when it was interrupted by a decree of the Committee of Public Safety. This decree, which is dated 3d Nivose, An. 3, and authenticated by the signatures of Barras, Robespierre, Billaud Varrenne, Couthon, and Collot d'Herbois, is a singular document, both as showing how, in times of political commotion, the most useful projects are made to share the fates of their patrons, and how necessary it is to control and give occupation to the force, which a revolution always developes. The project of the Academy of Sciences, recommending that the quarter of the meridian should be taken as

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the lineal unit, had been adopted by the republicans, as part of the policy, which was intended to destroy all the ancient modes, and names, and usages of the kingdom. The Academy, not wishing to trust the previous measurement, directed a new triangulation over a larger arc. This had been in progress for little more than a year, and had been conducted not only with ability, but with zeal; yet the agitators were afraid, lest it might not give results speedy enough, to answer as food for the public excitement. They therefore suppress the Commission, and decree, as a provisional and proximate measure, that the quarter of the meridian shall consist of 5,132,430 toises, and that the metre, or ten-millionth part of it, shall be three French feet and 11·44 lines. Upon this lineal unit, a system of measures, both of weight and capacity, was instituted, and a temporary agency appointed, to construct the standards necessary for the republic. Had standards been fabricated according to this decree, the French system would have been vicious from the beginning. The object of this manœuvre was, however, not purely scientific, — it was meant to direct public opprobrium upon certain members of the Academy, who were either inimical or temperate; and it was, perhaps, in consequence of this, that certain of them suffered in the severe proscription which followed. The decree is given at length by Delambre. It sequestrates (*destitue*) Borda, Lavoisier, La Place, Coulomb, Brisson, and Delambre, and requires the remaining members of the Commission to put the Committee in possession of "their views, respecting the method of giving the benefit of the new measures to all the citizens as soon as possible, taking advantage of the revolutionary movement." Upon which Delambre gravely remarks; "they thus wished to take advantage of the revolutionary movement; and it was a very good idea; but perhaps it was not impossible to arrive, by other ways, at the same results."

In 1794, on the report of C. A. Prieur, the measure of the arc was resumed by the former superintendents; and, as a general Commission on weights and measures, there were appointed Berthollet, Borda, Brisson, Coulomb, Delambre, Haüy, La Grange, La Place, Mechain, Monge, Prony, and Vaudermonde. The measure of the arc was completed in 1797, giving the length of the quarter of the meridian at 5130740 toises, and that of the metre, 443″·295936 French

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ligus, or 39·382755 English inches. As this metre differed from the provisional measure, adopted in 1793, the latter was revoked and declared illegal, and new standards were directed to be executed, in conformity with the new determination. These were introduced gradually into department after department, until the year 1804, when they were in general use throughout the kingdom. They continued undisturbed till 1812, when Napoleon, either because he thought the decimal system too republican to suit the empire, or because it actually occasioned some complaints, by an imperial decree of 1812, ordained that the double metre should be called the toise, one third of a metre the foot, and twelve decimetres the ell. The bushel was made a fourth of the hectolitre, and the pound equal to five hundred grammes. During the revolution, an entire new system had been carried out with a high hand; but when the fever began to subside, Messieurs les Français were found prone to say twenty metres, instead of two decimetres. They discovered, that, in arithmetic as in love, it is necessary to prefer binary combinations; and the names of the old system returned in functions of the new.

In the mean time, however, the new system had become too firmly established, to be shaken even by an imperial decree. The toise, and other imperial measures, are rarely mentioned in France; and even on the promulgation of the decree, the Minister of the Interior (Montalivet) found it necessary to make stated answers to nine several objections against any change of denomination, which had been simultaneously forwarded to his bureau, from different parts of the kingdom. There is some sophistry in the responses of the minister, as we may infer from the following instances. "The names given to measures, in conformity with the newly adopted principles, did not, perhaps, harmonize with the character of the language, by reason of their length, their too great similarity, and the uniformity of their terminations." And again, it is rather a slander on the intelligence of the great nation, to say; "this division, very favorable, no doubt, to the processes of calculation, offers no advantage to the people, who are not accustomed to calculate, and ought not to be compelled to do so."*

There are some peculiarities of the French standards,

* Circular of the Minister of the Interior. July 10, 1812.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

which it may be of interest briefly to notice. It has been customary, in most countries, to have standards, and the measures for common use, made of brass, as being a compound less liable to oxidation than others. It has, however, this objection; that as the compounds which may be designated as brass are very numerous, and of different expansibilities, standards made of this metal would be uncertain and not comparable. To avoid this objection, the republican standards were made of simple metals; of platinum, and of iron. Indeed, so attentive were they to this condition, that though the original metre and killogramme be of platinum, yet on discovering, that, from the mode of manufacturing this metal, its density must be devious, and of course its expansion different in different pieces, they preferred the metre of iron as the more certain. The standard temperature had also been taken usually, at the mean temperature of the climate; in England it is 62°. of Fahrenheit. The French made their standard temperature, that of melting ice, which is a fixed point of the thermometer; and for weight and capacity, they adopted the weight or quantity of distilled water, at its maximum density. The English, in their new standards, seem to have thought the advantage of a simple metal, and a temperature independent of the graduation of the thermometer, not worth consideration. Indeed, for their standards of weight and capacity, they have taken a metal of three or more components, which Captain Kater recommends, in one place, because it is nearly the color of gold; and, in another, because it is less liable to oxidization in the climate of England.

The greatest service, however, which the French have done to the world in this matter, is, in having connected the units of measure of weight and capacity by certain relations, which can always be identified, making the unit of capacity the cube of an aliquot part of the lineal unit, and the unit of weight, the weight of a cube of distilled water, (also an aliquot part of the lineal unit,) at its maximum density. They have succeeded in fixing and bringing into use, the best system of weights and measures yet known. The metre, throughout the continent, is already the medium of comparison between the lineal measures of different nations, verifying the hopes of its projectors, that it might, in time, come to be an universal measure. The original metre

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and kilogramme in platinum were delivered in 1799, upon which a decree, signed by Sièyes, Bonaparte, and Roger Ducos, directs that a medal shall be struck to commemorate the event, having on its principal face, the inscription, "À tous les temps, à tous les peuples;" and on the reverse, "République Française, An. VIII." The Consuls are dead, and two of them well nigh forgotten. The republic, and the empire which followed it, are no more. But the new domain, gained to science by their patronage, has been preserved, and given even to them a more imperishable monument, than fields or kingdoms, whether lost or won.

In England, from 1760 to 1814, the inattention of the government had been supplied by private exertion. Sir George Evelyn Shuckburg had devoted his time and resources to the subject of fixing standards. He procured from the late celebrated artist Troughton, a scale by which he made comparisons of the several lineal measures, then known in England. This scale, together with others made by the same artist, has since been much referred to, in establishing the relative values of different standards made in earlier times. Sir George Shuckburg extended his researches further, to determining the weight of fluids, and also the length of the pendulum of seconds. And though, as might have been expected, the results of his experiments have since been discovered to be inaccurate, owing to the neglect of certain influences, which were then held to be inappreciable, still they attracted public attention to the subject, and prepared the way for more perfect determinations.

The parliament resumed the consideration of the subject in 1814, with the advantage of all the experience, which private enterprise had acquired for them, and which the progress of the new system had developed in France. They began by inquiring for an uniform standard in nature; some measure which could always be detected, or known by some universal law, independent of any piece or model, by which it might have at any time been defined. To this end, a Committee of the House of Commons examined Prof. Playfair and Dr. Wollaston, who agreed that the pendulum, vibrating seconds in any given latitude, would be the best standard of lineal measure, and that any other unit, which the usage of earlier times might have made it advisable to adopt, could always be identified by its relation to this. The

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

opinion of these two distinguished men shows, that, at this period, the requisite attention had not yet been given to this subject in England, as subsequent researches have made to appear. It has been found that it is no easy matter to determine the precise length of the pendulum, vibrating seconds in any latitude; and also that difference of formation, and irregularity, either in the shape of the surface, or its density, have perceptible influence. And even admitting the length of the second pendulum in the same latitude, to be a constant quantity, and that its relation to the yard be known, the yard, if lost, would not be recoverable from the pendulum, as one is not an aliquot part of the other. Had the English, therefore, meant to verify their yard by the pendulum of seconds, it would have been advisable to make the yard $\frac{1}{1}\frac{2}{3}$ of the pendulum, which would have lengthened it about 0·12768 of an inch.

The Committee of 1814 recommend, that the parliamentary standard of 1758 be adopted as the lineal unit, and the Troy pound as the weight from which all others are to be derived. They advance divers reasons for this recommendation; the first being, that Troy weight is really London weight, that metropolis having been sometime known as Troy-Novant. They further recommend the Troy pound, because it has always been used among goldsmiths, at the mint, and by the faculty of medicine. They further propose that the avoirdupois pound be made equal to seven thousand troy grains, and that both weights be fixed, by making a thousand ounces avoirdupois equal to the weight of a cubic foot of water, at the temperature of $56\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ Fahrenheit; the gallon to be made equal to ten pounds avoirdupois of distilled water, at the same temperature.

In furtherance of these views, the Prince Regent, in 1819, appointed a Commission consisting of Sir Joseph Banks, Sir George Clerc, Davies Gilbert, Dr. Wollaston, Dr. T. Young, and Captain Kater, to take the project into consideration. Previous to this, Captain Kater had made experiments on the length of the pendulum in the latitude of London, and had compared the metre with the standard of 1760. The result of these gave the metre 39·37079 English inches, and the second pendulum in the latitude of London, at the level of the sea, 39·13842 English inches, of the parliamentary standard. The Commissioners, in their first

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Report, advise the adoption of the yard used by General Roy, in the trigonometrical survey of England. But, subsequently, having discovered, very unexpectedly, that this was not properly authenticated, they propose the parliamentary standard. This standard, imperfectly constructed at first, had been so much deteriorated by frequent use, that the points determining its length, resembled under the microscope "the miniature craters of small volcanoes," and no two persons could agree in bisecting them with sufficient accuracy to make correspondent results.

The standards proposed by the Commissioners for measures of capacity, would seem not to be defined with the necessary accuracy. They recommend, "that the ale and corn gallon be restored to their original equality, by taking, for the statutable common gallon of the British empire, a mean value, such that a gallon of common water may weigh ten pounds avoirdupois in ordinary circumstances, its contents being nearly 277·3 cubic inches."* These values were approved, and a law passed in 1824, directing the construction of models in conformity with them, the final adjustment of which was intrusted to Captain Kater. We have an account of these standards, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1826. There appears, however, to have been some *gaucherie* in their final adjustment, as may be inferred from the paper of Captain Kater, in the Transactions for 1830; "On the Error in Standards, arising from the Thickness of the Bar, on which they are traced." In 1834, the Bird standard was destroyed by fire; not, however, till Captain Kater's copies had been investigated by Bailly and others, who were engaged in making a new standard for the Astronomical Society. Mr. Bailly's paper, published in the Memoirs of the Astronomical Society for 1836, gives a minute description of this standard, of which several copies have been made; and also a detail of its value, as compared with the most important of its contemporaries. This standard is of a peculiar construction, which it may be well enough to describe. It is a cylindrical tube 0·19 of an inch thick, and with an exterior diameter of 1·12 inches. The cylinder is, however, not solid, but consists of two tubes, each of the thickness of ·05 of an inch, drawn into an exterior tube of the thickness

* Third Report of the Commissioners of Weights and Measures.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of 0·1 of an inch. The tube is sixty-three inches in length, and has a brass plug in each end. It is supported on two rollers, at a quarter of its length from each end, to equilibrate the weight and allow free expansion. The graduation is made on platinum pins, on four lines, at equal distances from each other, on the surface of the tube, so that there are four different standards united; the middle yard of the scale being taken as the true one.

This construction was probably adopted, on account of the difficulty found in supporting flat bars in the same plane. But it is questionable, whether a greater evil is not produced, than the one which it was intended to remedy. For though the tube, being supported at a fourth of its length from each end, be nearly in equilibrio, this does not prevent flexure, and the *flèche* will be greater, in proportion to the time during which the apparatus shall be left in the same position. When the brass plugs were taken out of the ends of the tube, its length was reduced 0·88 of the micrometer, or 0·00044 of an inch. But whatever rank this standard may take, the history of the preservation of the measure, which it is intended to represent, proves conclusively, that the custody of such matters is always appropriately intrusted to learned societies, in preference to the ordinary functionaries of the government. The English standards, kept at the Exchequer, were all vicious and uncertain; and it is only through the agency of the Royal Society, patronizing the labors of Graham, Bird, Troughton, Simms, and other distinguished artists, that the original English yard can be traced approximately, even as far back as 1750. This consideration should not be lost sight of in this country. The copies of standards, given to custom-house officers for use, will not long remain perfect; and it will be only by intrusting them to the keeping of universities, or learned societies, that we can expect to have them preserved. It is to be regretted, that the English standard yard is not that of the trigonometrical survey. If this had been the case, the union of the French with the English survey, which has recently been effected, would have given the ratio of the different measures on some line common to both operations.

The metre is at present the common measure of Europe. The celebrated Bessel has, for some time, been employed in constructing the standard for Prussia. To detail, however,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

all the similar operations, in different countries, would extend this paper beyond its proper limit. We will, therefore, briefly state what has been done among us.

Though, for a long time, the several recommendations from the Executive had pressed upon Congress the necessity of remedying the inconveniences, already produced by so long a neglect, yet it was not till 1830, that, by a resolution of the Senate, the Treasury department was authorized to have an accurate comparison made, of all the weights and measures then in use at the several receipts of revenue. The President appointed Professor Hassler to this duty, who, having collected, not only from the different custom-houses, but from other quarters, all the measures which were attainable, instituted and completed an elaborate comparison, the results of which are stated in the Report of 1832.

The measures of length, sent from different places, did not deserve the name of standards. A brass yard, cut to length, from the office of the Secretary of State of New York, and a scale of forty inches, by Gilbert, from the University of Virginia, were the most authentic. But this defect was supplied by standards, procured from the state, Treasury, and Engineer departments, and from the *appareil*, procured in 1815, for the survey of the coast. Copies of the English yard and ell by Thomas Jones, two iron toises by Canivet, nine metres, of iron, platinum, and brass, (one being an original, delivered by the Committee of Weights and Measures, and another standarded by Arago,) were procured from these sources. But the most important measure, was a brass scale of Troughton, of eighty-two inches in length, with an arrangement for comparison, which was made for the survey of the coast. Indeed, without this scale, or one of a similar construction, the accurate comparison of the other measures could not have been made at all. This scale is also of more value, as by it we are made certain, that the yard, adopted as a standard, is, as nearly as possible, identical with the British imperial standard, which is intended to be a copy of the standard of 1750. In addition to this, one of the pieces contains the distance of 51·2 inches, from the scale of Shuckburg, and another, a copy of the yard of 1750, laid off by Troughton, on platinum dots. The details of the comparison are of much interest, as showing the extreme accuracy attainable, by the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

scientific means of the present day. We will merely state the final results of the comparison of the metres, in inches of this scale, at the temperature of 32 Fahrenheit.

Platinum metre,	39·38042103 inches.
Iron metres,	39·3808643
	39·3807828
	39·3799120
Brass metres,	39·37981476
	39·3795982
	39·3804469

These determinations differ imperceptibly from those of other metres, made with the English scales. And, in the present state of science, it is more the object to determine the relative value of the several pieces, than to attempt precise copies of any. Indeed, the modes of comparing are superior to those of construction, as will be evident from the following statement of Mr. Bailly, of the relation between several of the recent standards. The last made standard of the Astronomical Society, is longer than the

Imperial standard,	0·000377 of an inch.
Copy made for Russia,	0·000456
Copy made for Denmark,	0·000125
Scale of Shuckburg,	0·000058

Of the weights furnished from the custom-houses, the resulting pounds differed, in the extremes, two hundred and forty-six troy grains; but in general, did not vary more than five grains from the standard. They were compared with a set of grain weights of Troughton, furnished for the coast survey in 1815. These grain weights were compared with a pound troy, made by Troughton, and brought to this country by Mr. Hassler, in 1805, and agreed with it. This pound troy, of 1805, was found, however, to differ from the pound troy of the United States' Mint, which had been standarded by Captain Kater, in 1828, being 2·38 grains lighter. It had been discovered previously, by Sir George Shuckburg, that the standard troy pound of 1758 weighed 5763·817 Troughton grains; and it is now ascertained that the pound of the United States' Mint has lost weight for about 1·2 grains by use. These English weights were also compared with the kilogram and other foreign weights. The

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

details are of much interest; but to notice them even summarily would overpass our limits. The main results are these;

Troy pound of 1758 (by Sir G. Shuckburg) in Troughton grains,	5763·73
Troy pound of United States' Mint (F. R. Hassler)	5762·38
Kilogram original, (F. R. Hassler)	15439·619
Kilogram original, (certified by Minister of the Interior)	15432·719

In making these comparisons, there being no means of procuring, without great loss of time, balances of sufficient delicacy, Mr. Hassler used water and mercurial balances, on the principle of the hydrometer, which are more sensible, and have no friction.

The measures of capacity collected, were more discrepant than those of length or of weight. Of forty-eight bushels, sent from the different custom-houses, the extremes were found to differ in contents, four hundred and thirty-three cubic inches. Yet the indiscriminate mean of the whole gave two thousand one hundred and fifty-three cubic inches, differing only 2·18 inches from the English Winchester bushel, from which they had, doubtless, been first derived. The following were the nearest, and the most remote, from the original.

	Contents.	*Weight.*
Bushel from Bath, (Me.)	1925· cub. inches.	74·2
Portsmouth,	2153·74	77·12
Newburyport,	2150·52	
New York,	2152;36	78·13
Georgetown,	2152.60	
Cherry Stone,	2225.48	83.4

On the completion of this comparison, the government adopted for the different kinds of standards, the following bases; viz. the unit called the yard to be the mean thirty-six inches, from the scale of Troughton; the troy pound of the mint, to be the basis for determining the unit of weight; the British Winchester bushel, of 2150·4 cubic inches, equal to 77·6274 pounds avoirdupois of distilled water, at the maximum density, to be the unit of dry measure; and the English wine gallon, of two hundred and thirty-one cubic inches, equal to 8·339 pounds avoirdupois of distilled water,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

at the maximum density, the unit for liquid measure. This establishment was the last official act of Mr. Ingham, as Secretary of the Treasury.

Professor Hassler has used brass as the metal for all the standards of this country; the reason given being, that, as the copies for common use would naturally be made of this compound, (it being the cheapest and least liable to oxidation,) it was proper that the original should be of the same material, as affording a more perfect comparison. In speaking of this, he says;

"The adoption of brass as the metal for all standards, uniformly, is rather a consequence of old habits which gave it the preference, as the cheapest metal, not subject to prompt and very evident oxidation. Its compound nature might introduce differences in the ratio of its expansion by temperature, which, absolutely and scientifically speaking, would be a defect: but this variation is proved, by experience, to be too minute to have any effect upon the practical application to standards, within the limits of magnitude they generally have." — *Document* 299, p. 16.

There may be some question as to the propriety of this decision. But, in order to ensure the greatest uniformity, all the brass, used for the standards, has been made by the same process; the zinc having been obtained by distillation, and the copper exactly saturated by cementation. The brass, therefore, of the standards, is perfect free brass, tough, hard, and of uniform density.

For the standards of length, Mr. Hassler has adopted the form, in which the French toises were frequently made, "a measure cut to length with a matrix," the two fitting so closely, as to present a fine cut line, under the microscope. This form has the peculiar advantage, of showing always, from the looseness of the filling and consequent broadness of the contingent surfaces, any deterioration or misuse, which the standard may have suffered; while, when perfect, it unites all the properties of the *mètre au bout*, with those of the *mètre au trait*. It is, however, proportionably difficult in execution. The weights are frustums of cones, with knobs at their upper ends, and having the edges of their bases turned thin, to admit of a more delicate adjustment. The measures of capacity are cylinders of turned brass, with ground glass covers. Weights and measures of length have

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

already been standarded for the six principal custom-houses, and the remainder are in a state of forwardness.

On a review of the whole progress of this matter in the United States, we may, perhaps, find reason to congratulate ourselves that it was not undertaken at an earlier period, as, in that case, it is more than probable that the execution would not have been effected on a scale commensurate either with the object itself, or the science of the time. When we know, that balances are now constructed sensible to the hundredth of a grain, and that the microscopic comparison of measures of length is carried to the fifth decimal of the inch, and are aware that in a standard of near half an inch thick, Captain Kater discovered palpable differences, from drawing fine Wollaston wire under different portions of the bar, thereby producing different degrees of flexure, the difficulty and responsibility of a proper execution of measures, must be very evident. Had it been attempted at an earlier day, there would have been danger that we should have contented ourselves with a gross approximation, which would in a few years have required revision. As corroborative of this, we have been told, from undoubted authority, that when a new system of weights and measures was first thought of in this country, it was proposed by the chief of one of the departments, to intrust its execution to the director of the mint; it being at the same time well known, that of the latest gold coinage of the country, scarcely two pieces can be found of similar weight, or not differing by a quantity discernible in a broker's balance. The silver coinage is still more unequal, as all chemists, who have been in the habit of using the small pieces for weight, can testify.

We are also now better aware, from the minute accounts of such projects in the elder countries, of the means necessary to be taken for the preservation of the original and prime standards. If they should be kept as the English Exchequer standards were long kept, they will soon be uncertain and indeterminable. If, on the contrary, they be preserved as the French standards have always been, among the most important archives of the state, and never shown or touched except by men of science, they will be always of certain reference, and fully answer the object of their construction.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ART. II. — *Delle Navigazioni et Viaggj*, raccolte da M. GIOVAM-BATTISTA RAMUSIO, IV. vol., fol.; Venezia, appresso i Giunti; (tom. iii. MDLXV., MDCVI.)

GIOVANNI VERRAZZANO, the details of whose life, so far as they can be gathered, will form the subject of the present paper, was born of Pier Andrea da Verrazzano and Fiammetta Capelli, both citizens of Florence. Conjecture, as to his history, commences with his infancy; and it is only by a process of probable reasoning, that we can arrive at any conclusion even with regard to the year of his birth. The line of his ancestry is better known, and has been traced with a certain degree of evidence to an early part of the Middle Ages. Nor will it be uninteresting to add, that the family continued to our own day, having become extinct in the person of the Cavalier Andrea da Verrazzano, who died at Florence in the year 1819.

A highly probable conjecture of Pelli places his birth about the year 1485.* That his education was not neglected, is evident from his subsequent career; nor would it be going too far to say, that it must have corresponded in some respects to the rank and pretensions of a family, which counted among its ancestors some of the most distinguished men of the republic. However this may be, it would seem certain that the passion for adventure, to which he is indebted for his reputation, was manifested at an early period of his life. He resided several years at Cairo; but at what epoch, and for what purpose, cannot now be ascertained with certainty, although there can be but little doubt, that it was in the course of those commercial speculations, which led the Italians to establish themselves wherever these aims could be prosecuted to advantage. Whether also his travels in Egypt and in Syria were excursions made for the gratification of his curiosity, or in quest of gain; and whether they had any connexion with his residence at Cairo, or were undertaken at a previous or at a subsequent period, are questions, which, in order to refrain from venturing too far beyond the legitimate bounds of histor-

* "Non essendo nato Giovanni nel 1480, al tempo dell' ultimo catasto, per non vedervisi in quello dato in *portata* dal Padre col restante della *famiglia*, e per crederlo in età capace di grandi imprese nel 1524, si potrà ragionevolmente dire nato circa il 1485." — *Elogj degli Illust. Toscani*, Tom. II. No. 30.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ical conjecture, we are constrained to pass over in silence. It is evident, however, from several allusions and comparisons in his letter to Francis, that, whatever may have been the nature of his travels by land, he had made more than one voyage in the Mediterranean; and the rank to which he had attained in the service of France, as early as the year 1523, would naturally lead us to suppose, that these voyages had been attended with a certain share of success and distinction. How else can we account for his having been chosen, in an age that abounded with bold and skilful adventurers, to direct the first effort made by France in the career of maritime discovery?

But such has been the fortune of Verrazzano, that here, where light first begins to break in upon his history, we find ourselves involved in a new question, with which the carelessness of a modern historian has encumbered a path already sufficiently intricate and obscure.

It has been confidently asserted, that Verrazzano made three voyages of discovery in the service of France. The first is said to have taken place in 1523; and the second in the following year. Of the third we shall have occasion to speak more fully in the sequel of our paper.

The supposition of the first voyage is founded upon the opening paragraph of his celebrated letter to the king of France. The author of this supposition is Charlevoix, who, as he quotes from Ramusio, would not seem to have derived his information from any other text of the letter of Verrazzano, than the copy which we still read in the collection of that editor. In this, according to the French historian, Verrazzano, supposing Francis to have been already informed of the success and the details of his voyage, simply states, that he had sailed from the port of Dieppe with four vessels, which he had succeeded in bringing back in safety to the same port; from whence, continues Charlevoix, he started once more, in the month of January, 1525, upon a predatory excursion against the Spanish.*

* See Charlevoix, T. I. p. 41. We would here correct a slight error, which has inadvertently dropped from the pen of Mr. Bancroft. This gentleman says, (Hist. of the U. States, Vol. I. p. 17,) that "the Italian [Verrazzano] parting from a fleet, which had pursued a gainful commerce in the ports of Spain," &c. Verrazzano's own words are; "*Avrà V. M. inteso il discorso facemmo con quelle armate in guerra per li lidi di Spagna,*" &c.; Charlevoix, "*pour aller en course.*" This of course was not commerce, nor would the war which was then raging between their respective monarchs, admit of any amicable intercourse between France and Spain.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

If, however, we turn to the letter of Verrazzano, we shall find that it reads very differently from the account thus given of it. He says, that, after the tempest which he had encountered on the northern coast, he had not written to the king concerning the vessels sent out upon discovery, supposing him to have been already informed of the manner, in which he had been impelled by the violence of the winds to take shelter in Brittany, with only two ships, the Dolphin and the Normandy; that he had there made the necessary repairs; that he had then made a predatory excursion along the coast of Spain; and, finally, that by a new arrangement, of which, also, he supposes the king to have been already informed, he had resolved to continue the first voyage with the Dolphin alone.

It will here be seen that Verrazzano, so far from saying any thing of his having returned to Dieppe, explicitly states, that he had been driven by the wind into a port of Brittany. The assertion of Charlevoix, therefore, that Verrazzano had successfully led his fleet back to Dieppe, is a flat contradiction of the passage which he cites. Thus the proof of the first voyage of Verrazzano is reduced to the first line of the paragraph in question, and the words *seguire la prima navigazione* ("continue the first voyage"), at the close of the same paragraph. After an attentive consideration of the whole passage, we have been unable to discover any thing in the language of it, which can justify the opinion of Charlevoix. Tiraboschi, with his usual acuteness, suggests that the voyage given out by the French historian as completed, may have been undertaken merely, and interrupted by the tempest alluded to in the paragraph which we have cited.* This suggestion, to which Tiraboschi was led by his critical sagacity alone, is confirmed by a passage in the letter of Carli,† who says, that when Verrazzano was driven back by the tempest, he was abandoned by one of his Florentine companions. The explanation of the whole paragraph is thus rendered natural and easy; and we are justified in concluding that the voyage actually accomplished by Verrazzano was, inasmuch as discovery was concerned, the continuation of an undertaking, whose commencement

* "Ma forse il primo fu solo tentato ed impedito dalla burrasca." Tiraboschi, Tom. VII. par. 1, p. 261.

† For an account of this letter, see the note on page 307.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

dated further back than his departure from near the island of Madeira.*

We are at length upon sure ground. Verrazzano has told his own story, and with that unaffected simplicity which never fails to command belief. He sailed from a desert rock, near the island of Madeira, on the 17th of January, 1524, in the ship Dolphin, provisioned for eight months, well armed, and provided with those articles which experience had shown to be of value in an intercourse with the natives of the west. The Dolphin is described as but a caravel in burden; but this was an age in which the success of bold enterprises seems to have been calculated rather by the character of the men who conducted them, than by the fitness and extent of the means employed for their accomplishment.

Starting with the favor of a light but constant wind, he stretched boldly to the westward, with a slight northerly inclination in his course, and in the first twenty-five days had already sailed eight hundred leagues. On the 24th of February, he was assailed by a violent tempest, which his crowded caravel could hardly have weathered, unless guided by a bold and experienced mariner. For twenty-five days more he held his way with unwavering constancy, although evidently less favored by the wind, for in all this time he accomplished but half the distance of his first run. At length he came within sight of land, a long line of low coast stretching to the southward as far as eye could reach, and lighted by the blaze of innumerable fires. His first impulse was to land; and, after a fruitless search for some convenient harbour, he cast anchor off the shore, and landed in his boat. As he drew nigh to the beach, the timid natives hastily fled, stopping, however, from time to time, to gaze with expressions of savage wonder at their strange visitants. Curiosity soon got the bet-

* We subjoin the original paragraph, for the satisfaction of such of our readers, as may wish to examine the point for themselves. "Da poi la fortuna passata nelle spiagge settentrionali, Serenissimo Signore, non scrissi a vostra serenissima e cristianissima Maestà, quello che era seguito delli quattro legni, che quella mandò per lo oceano ad iscoprir nuove terre, pensando di tutto sia stata certificata come dalle impetuose forze de' venti fummo costretti, con sola la nave Normand ae Delfina afflitti, ricorrere in Brettagna, dove restaurati, avrà V. S. M. inteso il discorso facemmo con quelle armate in guerra per li lidi di Spagna, di poi la nuova disposizione con sola la Delfina in seguire la prima navigazione, dalla quale essendo ritornato, darò adviso a V. S. M. di quello abbiamo trovato."

We have followed in this extract the Magliabecchian manuscript. See note, p. 306.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ter of their apprehensions ; and, encouraged by the signs and gestures of the seamen, they returned towards them with demonstrations of wild delight, amazed at their dress and aspect, and eagerly pressing forward to point out the best place for landing. Nor was there less in the appearance of the natives, to excite the admiration of the Europeans. Naked, except at the waist, which was covered with skins and girdles of grass, interwoven with the tails of various animals, and at the head, which some wore decked with garlands of feathers, the darkness of their skins and of their thick hair seems to have set off, to the eyes of Verrazzano, their fine forms and striking features. He was strongly reminded of the East ; and traced out a resemblance between the natives of the two countries, which subsequent observations have partially confirmed. This first interview was confined to expressions of mutual wonder, and nothing occurred on either side to interrupt the harmony of the parties.

Pursuing his course northward, he continued to note with care every thing that the nature of his situation allowed him to observe. Not far from his first landing-place, he remarked another tribe, which, as near as he could judge, resembled the former in situation and appearance. The shore was covered with a fine sand, which formed a beach of nearly fifteen feet in breadth, and broken by small hillocks. Further on, the coast was indented with inlets and arms of the sea, and assumed, as he continued to advance, a richer and more winning aspect. Broad fields spread their verdant treasures before him ; and woods, more or less dense, displayed the variegated foliage of our American forests. He seems to have been overpowered with the beauty of the scene, and at a loss for words to describe it. "Think not," says he, "that they are like the Crimean forests, or the solitudes of Scythia, or the rigid coasts of the North, but adorned with palm trees, and cypress, and laurel, and species unknown to Europe, which breathe forth from afar the sweetest of odors." Nor is it surprising that his kindling imagination should have filled them with spices and aromatic liquors, and discovered traces of gold in the very color of the soil. The lakes and ponds of fresh water gave a new charm to the scenery, and his eye was caught with the wild fowl of various species that hovered around them. A mild and temperate climate, a serene sky, rarely and transiently tainted with vapors, and constantly re-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

freshed by gentle western breezes, complete the enchanting picture which he has drawn of this region ; while a smooth sea, with a clear and tenacious bottom, seemed to combine security for the mariner with all the charms that attract the landsman.

The coast now verged more decidedly to the west. Yet no harbour was to be seen, and in order to obtain a supply of fresh water, of which he began to feel the want, Verrazzano was constrained to make one more attempt to land in his boat. He approached the shore, but could not reach it ; for the waves, rolling in with unbroken fury upon the open beach, rendered all access impracticable. To add to his embarrassment, the natives had assembled upon the beach, and seemed to invite him to land, with amicable gestures and expressions of curiosity and amazement. In order to make some reply to these friendly demonstrations, he ordered one of his men to swim as nigh to the shore as he dared, and endeavour to convey to the natives some of the toys which he thought would prove most acceptable to them. The sailor succeeded in conveying his precious burden to those for whom it was destined ; but, in endeavouring to return to the boat, was overpowered by the breakers and thrown breathless upon the sand. No sooner did the natives perceive his danger, than, hastening to his assistance, they drew him from the water, and raising him by the arms and legs, carried him higher up the beach. At this moment he recovered from his swoon, and becoming aware of his situation, began to cry aloud for help. To this the savages replied with cries no less vehement, and which probably would not have gone far towards removing his fears, if their actions had not speedily given him the best warrant of their good intentions. Placing him gently upon the ground, at the foot of a small hillock, they seemed for a moment to be lost in admiration of the whiteness and delicacy of his skin. A fire was soon kindled ; and, while his terror-stricken companions were every moment expecting to see him devoured under their very eyes, the kind-hearted natives proceeded to warm and restore him by its blaze. The impression which this act made upon Verrazzano and his crew may be easily imagined. We wish we could say, that it was properly rewarded. But many admire what they could never perform, and civilized man seems to have devised laws for his own guidance, of which he is unwilling to extend the advantage to barbarians.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Fifty leagues further to the North, Verrazzano again landed, and succeeded in penetrating nearly two leagues into the interior, with about twenty of his crew. The natives had fled to their forests; but two, a young woman and an old one, less fortunate than the rest, were overtaken by the Europeans. The beginning of the interview was friendly, the latter offering them food, which was gladly accepted by the elder, but contemptuously rejected by her companion. The kidnapping of savages was too common an event to excite even a passing remorse in the mind of a seaman of that age; and the occasion thus presented, too tempting to be neglected. They seized, therefore, upon the girl, and taking at the same time a boy of about eight years, who was hanging at the back of the old woman, began to retrace their steps towards the sea. Fortunately for the young savage, they were at a distance from the boat, and their way lay through woods, which increased both the danger and difficulty of their return. Nor was the girl disposed to submit tranquilly to her captors, but by the violence of her cries, and by her vigorous resistance, showed them, that it is often easier to attempt, than to accomplish an injustice. At last, wearied with the fruitless struggle, and perhaps not wholly free from the apprehension of danger from the natives, they released her and contented themselves with their less troublesome, though less valued prize, the boy.*

The remarks which Verrazzano made upon this part of the coast, and which were collected during the three days that his ship lay at anchor off the shore, give a favorable idea of his habits of observation, although they contain nothing which would now be thought worth preserving. We shall venture, however, to follow him on his visit to the harbours of New York and Newport.

A northwesterly course, which he pursued without variation for a hundred leagues, sailing only during the day and casting anchor at night, soon brought him to the shores of New Jersey. He here came upon a beautiful spot, situated among hills, through which a vast river rolled its waters towards the ocean. There was water enough, at its mouth, for a ship of any burden; but he resolved to try the passage first in his boat. Rowing cautiously forward, he was soon

* This boy reached France in safety, as appears from the letter of Carli; but we know not what became of him afterwards.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

met by the natives, who, far from giving any signs of fear, advanced towards him with joyful gestures and shouts of admiration. Numbers also were hastening over from the opposite shore, and eagerly pressing forward to catch a sight of the strangers. But, in the midst of this novel scene, the wind, suddenly rising, began to blow with great violence; and before he had penetrated beyond half a league into the *beautiful lake* (*bellissimo lago*), which seemed so inviting, he was compelled to return to his ship, and, weighing anchor, take his course eastward.

He passed Block Island, which struck him by its resemblance to the Island of Rhodes. This is the only spot which he speaks of as having named. He called it Louisa, in honor of the mother of his patron. Fifteen leagues more brought him to the harbour of Newport. He had not yet entered the port, when his vessel was surrounded by nearly thirty canoes, filled with wondering savages. At first, none ventured to approach the ship; but, stopping at the distance of about fifty paces, they sat gazing in silent admiration at the strange objects, which had thus risen like magic before them. Then of a sudden, giving vent to their feelings, they broke out into a long shout of joy. The seamen, on the other hand, did all they could to win their confidence, and soon succeeded in alluring them sufficiently near, to catch the beads and bells and such like toys, which were thrown to them. At sight of these, every apprehension vanished, and, smiling as they contemplated them, they drew nigh and entered the ship. Among them were two kings, whose forms, if we may trust Verrazzano, were of the finest mould. One seemed to be about forty, the other, twenty-four years of age. The elder was arrayed in a robe of deer skins, skilfully wrought with rich embroidery. His head was bare, with the hair carefully tied behind. His neck was adorned with a large chain, set off with various-colored stones. The dress of the younger was nearly the same. The appearance of the people corresponded to the fine make of their sovereigns. Their complexion was remarkably clear; their features regular; their hair long, and dressed with no ordinary degree of care; their eyes black and lively; their whole aspect pleasing, and bearing a striking resemblance to that cast of countenance, which distinguishes the busts of the ancients. In short, to borrow the language of the discoverer, "they were the most beautiful

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and genteel mannered people he had met with in all his voyage." Nor do the females seem to have appeared less lovely and winning, and, though viewed only at a distance, to have made a less favorable impression upon our mariners. Like the men, they were in part naked, and in part attired in highly ornamented skins. Their hair was studiously decked with ornamental braids, which were left free to fall upon the breast. Some wore rich skins upon their arms, and a certain distinction of dress seems to have been observed by those of different ages and conditions; for the more advanced in years wore their hair like the females of Syria and of Egypt, and those who were married were distinguished by variously formed pendants in their ears. The natives seem moreover to have been fully sensible of the charms of their females; for, although repeatedly asked and even urged to allow them to enter the ship, they could never be prevailed upon to consent, or trust them within reach of the Europeans. So that, while the males were amusing themselves on board, their wives and daughters were constrained to wait for them in their canoes, and could only gratify their curiosity by a distant view.

During a stay of more than fifteen days, Verrazzano continued his observations upon the country and its inhabitants. With regard to the latter, besides the qualities of which we have already spoken, he was particularly struck with their total ignorance of the value of gold, and the preference which they gave to beads and toys over more costly and useful objects. He made several excursions up Narragansett Bay, and examined it with considerable attention. To those who have traced the windings of its lovely shores, his rapturous descriptions will hardly seem exaggerated; and, although the Indian canoe no longer sports upon its waters, and the woods which shaded its main land and islands have given place to the corn-field and the neat cottage of the husbandman, yet the eyes that have dwelt on them through the first years of life, will scarcely fail to recognise, even in their present form, the original outlines of his glowing picture.

His voyage was now drawing to a close. On the 6th of May, he bade adieu to the friendly natives of Rhode Island, and, coasting along towards the north, explored, without landing, an extent of two hundred leagues. The spot, where he now cast anchor, seemed the reverse of all those which he had hitherto visited. The woods were dense, and filled with

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the trees of a colder climate; the soil barren, or barely yielding a scanty supply of roots. The inhabitants, also, clothed in the skins of wolves and bears, seemed to share in the rugged nature of the land in which they dwelt. They repulsed every attempt at friendly intercourse, and held no further communication with the ship than was necessary, in order to secure the exchange of some of their own commodities for the hooks and knives and sharpened steel of the strangers. Nor did they go to the ship or suffer the seamen to land to carry on their bargain; but, standing upon the rocks, they passed the articles of exchange backwards and forwards by a long cord, and, as soon as the trade was completed, hastened back to their woods. In spite of this threatening reception, Verrazzano landed, penetrated several miles into the country, examined some of the huts of the natives, and succeeded in forming some idea of their condition and manner of life. On his return, they followed close upon his track, discharging their arrows, and venting their hostility in wild cries of impotent rage.

Leaving this inhospitable shore, the intrepid navigator still continued onward, following the line of the coast, till within nearly the fiftieth degree of northern latitude. Thirty-two islands, all lying near to the shore, were discovered in the course of fifty leagues. The ports and passages, formed by their juxtaposition, reminded him of the Adriatic along the coast of Dalmatia. His provisions now began to fail, and a broad space of unknown sea still separated him from France. The object of his voyage had been in a great measure accomplished. He had discovered above seven hundred leagues of a new world, and held sufficient communication with the inhabitants to enable him to form some idea of their state and character. Yielding to these considerations, he bore away for Europe. His passage was prosperous; and he entered the port of Dieppe early in the month of July, 1524, about five months and a half from the day of his departure from the rock near Madeira.

He now hastened to transmit to the king a full narrative of his voyage. This forms the celebrated letter to Francis First, the only authentic document concerning Verrazzano, which has reached us. And Ramusio, to whom we are indebted for the preservation of it, says, that, even in his time, nothing else relative to him could be found, all having perished during the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

last fatal wars of Florence. Enough, however, is contained in this letter, to give a general idea of the character of the writer, and enable us to form a tolerable estimate of his qualifications for the hazardous career in which he was engaged.

That he was possessed of the first and most important of these, firmness and modest courage, is sufficiently evident from the whole tenor of his narrative. And the tone of this production is so peculiar and so strikingly characteristic, that the author, without once speaking of himself, and without seeking, either directly or indirectly, to give weight to his own acts and opinions, leaves upon the mind of the reader a distinct and lively impression of the superiority of the individual, whose exploits he is studying. He was occasionally led away by the prevailing passion of the age, and predisposed to discover qualities in the soil and nature of the countries he discovered, which were not always warranted by the actual appearance of them; yet there is a general air of exactness in his remarks, and a tact in seizing upon the most striking features in the aspect as well of the country as of its inhabitants, which would justify us in attributing to him no common powers of observation. He makes no attempts at combining his scattered remarks into a systematic description,—that species of combination which affords the best proof of a philosophic mind, when supported by a broad basis of facts, and of a superficial one, when that basis is neglected. There are only one or two instances, also, where he indulges in the habit, so common to travellers, of making use of that which they see and hear, in order to discover a thousand things which they can neither see nor hear; of perverting those analogies, which are so sure when applied to nature, and so uncertain when applied to man, unless the application be accompanied by a perfect knowledge of all the circumstances which vary and modify our nature in every form of society. He writes as a European, and consequently employs terms, that are not always adapted to the state of society which he describes. His kings are represented as surrounded by their gentlemen of attendance; the queen, by her ladies. These, however, are but words, and their import is corrected by the whole tenor of the passages in which they are found. He evidently aims at nothing more, than a plain and faithful description of what he had done and seen.

The letter closes with a cosmographical exposition of his

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

voyage. From this we learn with what views he actually set out, and in what manner he had reasoned upon those wonderful discoveries which had produced so complete a revolution in the science of geography. The discovery of a passage to Cathay was the end that he proposed to accomplish; and, though he was already convinced, that Europe and Asia were separated towards the west by a vast tract of intervening land, yet he felt equally sure that some strait must necessarily open a passage through it to India. He enters upon this disquisition with the zeal of a man confident in the soundness of his theories; and, as the voyage which he had completed was but a prelude to the greater undertakings which he had projected, he endeavours, by the exactness and fulness of his reasoning, to inspire his patron with the same feelings. The minute details and observations, of a character more strictly professional, had been carefully noted in another work, to which he refers for a fuller view of his nautical system. This work has unfortunately shared in the fate of all that belonged to Verrazzano, either having perished with its author, or being lost among the confused miscellanies of some French or Italian library.

The return of the successful navigator was hailed with the warmest expressions of joy. All hopes of again seeing him had long been given over; and many had lamented, and still more had blamed, the temerity, which had exposed him to a wretched death among the frozen waters of the Northern ocean. But no sooner was it known, that he had not only arrived in safety, but had actually succeeded in discovering an extensive tract of land, till then unknown even to the boldest navigators of the age, than he was greeted as a man of the highest powers, and worthy to be classed with the first members of his profession. The cupidity of commerce, also, was suddenly awakened. The result of his interview with the king was looked for with the greatest anxiety. Scarce any doubt was entertained concerning the success of his representations, or that he would be immediately despatched to prosecute his undertaking, with means better proportioned to its magnitude and importance. The merchants of Lyons were already revelling in visions of the wealth, that was to pour in upon them from these new sources.

Whether, however, another voyage ever took place, or whether the plans of Verrazzano and his friends were

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

thwarted by some sudden change in the feelings of Francis, or by the disasters which followed the fatal battle of Pavia, are questions around which historians have drawn so thick a veil of doubts and contradictions, that it would be impossible to fix upon any opinion, that should appear equally satisfactory to all classes of readers. But, as all our knowledge of the rest of the life of Verrazzano is wholly dependent upon the solution of this question, we shall endeavour to state, as clearly and succinctly as is compatible with the nature of the subject, the principal points at issue, and the result of our own inquiries.

Ramusio, a contemporary of Verrazzano, to whose care, as has already been said, we are indebted for the preservation of the only authentic document that we possess concerning him, positively asserts, that he set out a second time, in order to pursue his discoveries in the west.* The course and details of this voyage are not given; but in Ramusio's time it was generally believed, that Verrazzano, upon landing on the coast, was overpowered by the natives, and eaten within sight of his companions. The scene of this horrid event is not known; but the ship must have returned, or how could the fatal tidings have reached France? Such was the contemporary belief concerning the death of Verrazzano. The fate of Magellan and that of Cortoreal add not a little to its probability.

This statement is contradicted by Charlevoix, who, however, rejects only one part of it, the tragic end of Verrazzano.† He acknowledges that a second voyage was undertaken; but says that nothing more was ever heard of the ship or of its crew. He gives it out also as certain, that the mysterious fate of Verrazzano long deterred the French from making any new attempts in the career which he had opened.

The next story is that advanced by the author of the Chronological Essay on the History of Florida.‡ This writer asserts, but upon what grounds it would be difficult to guess, that Verrazzano was taken by the Baskians in 1524, carried by them first to Seville, thence to Madrid, and there hanged.

* Ramusio, Tom. III. p. 438. † Charlevoix, Tom. I. *ut supra.*

‡ This work we have not seen, but quote from Tiraboschi. Vol. VII. p. 262. His quotation also appears to have been taken at second hand; but it is acknowledged that the author brings no proof in confirmation of his assertion, a circumstance, which, in treating of facts so remote, and so variously related, would of itself be sufficient to cast strong suspicious upon his testimony.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The most serious objection to the account given by Ramusio was advanced by Tiraboschi, in the short account of the life of Verrazzano, which he has inserted in the seventh volume of his History of Italian Literature. It is founded upon a passage in one of the letters of Hannibal Caro, which had until then escaped the attention of all who had engaged in this obscure subject. The letter is addressed from Castro to the members of the household of Monsignor de' Gaddi; and contains a humorous account of a journey which Caro was then making.* Addressing the different members of the family in turn, he proceeds thus; "As for you, Verrazzano, a discoverer of new worlds and their wonders, I cannot as yet tell you any thing worthy of your map, for we have not thus far passed through any country, which had not been already discovered by you or by your brother." From this remarkable passage, Tiraboschi conjectures, that Giovanni himself, and not his brother, a person wholly unknown to the writers of the age, was the person addressed; that, having been badly rewarded for his services to France, he had been constrained to seek a sustenance by taking service in the family of Bishop Gaddi; and that consequently the statement of Ramusio, is incorrect; or that the second voyage of which he speaks, took place much later than was generally supposed. He adds, however, that the uncertainty which hangs over the life of Verrazzano is so great, as to render it impossible to come to any satisfactory conclusion.

Mr. Bancroft seems to have adopted the former of Tiraboschi's conjectures.† The passage, from an early work of

---

* "Delle Lettere Familiari del com. Annibal Caro." Venetia, 1587, appresso Bernardo Giunti. Tom. I. pp. 6, 7.

† "History of the United States, Vol. I. p. 20. In a note to the same page, Mr. Bancroft quotes a passage from Tiraboschi, (Vol. VII. pp. 261, 262,) referring to a cosmographical narration of Verrazzano, preserved in manuscript in the Strozzi Library at Florence, and expresses a wish that a copy may be obtained for the collections of the New York Historical Society. The Strozzi Library is no longer in existence; but the manuscripts of that collection passed into the hands of the Tuscan government, and were divided between the Magliabecchian and Laurentian libraries of Florence. The historical documents were deposited in the former. Among them was the cosmographical narration of Verrazzano, mentioned by Tiraboschi, upon the authority, as we should suppose, of Pelli. It is contained in a volume of Miscellanies, marked "Class XIII. Cod. 89. Verraz."; and forms the concluding portion of the letter to Francis the First, which is copied at length in the same volume. It is written in the common running hand of the sixteenth century, (*carrattere*

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Hakluyt, which he quotes from the recent Memoirs of Cabot, would seem to give grounds for a new supposition. But, as we have not been any more fortunate than Mr. Bancroft, in

corsivo,) tolerably distinct, but badly pointed. The whole volume, which is composed of miscellaneous pieces, chiefly relating to contemporary history, is evidently the work of the same hand.

Upon collating this manuscript with that part of the letter which was published by Ramusio, we were struck with the differences in language, which run through every paragraph of the two texts. In substance there is no important difference, except in one instance, where by an evident blunder of the transcriber *bianchissimo* is put for *bronzina*. There is something so peculiar in the style of this letter, as it reads in the manuscript of the Magliabecchian, that it is impossible to account for its variations from Ramusio, except by supposing that this editor worked the whole piece over anew, correcting the errors of language upon his own authority.* These errors indeed are numerous, and the whole exhibits a strange mixture of Latinisms and absolute barbarisms, with pure Tuscan words and phrases. The general cast of it, however, is simple and not unpleasing. The obscurity of many of the sentences is in a great measure owing to false pointing.

The cosmographical description forms the last three pages of the letter. It was doubtless intentionally omitted by Ramusio, though it would be difficult to say why. Some of the readings are apparently corrupt; nor, ignorant as we are of nautical science, was it in our power to correct them. There are also some slight mistakes, which must be attributed to the transcriber.

A letter, which follows that of Verrazzano, gives, as it seems to us, a sufficient explanation of the origin of this manuscript. It was written by a young Florentine, named Fernando Carli, and is addressed from Lyons to his father in Florence. It mentions the arrival of Verrazzano at Dieppe, and contains several circumstances about him, which throw a new though still a feeble light upon some parts of his history, hitherto wholly unknown. It is by the discovery of this letter, that we have been enabled to form a sketch of him, somewhat more complete than any which has ever yet been given.

The history of both manuscripts is probably as follows. Carli wrote to his father, thinking, as he himself tells us, that the news of Verrazzano's return would give great satisfaction to many of their friends in Florence. He added at the same time, and this also we learn from his own words, a copy of Verrazzano's letter to the king. Both his letter and his copy of Verrazzano's were intended to be shown to his Florentine acquaintances. Copies, as is usual in such cases, were taken of them; and to us it seems evident that, from some one of these, the copy in the Magliabecchian manuscript was derived. The appearance of this last, which was prepared for, if not by, some individual fond of collecting miscellaneous documents, is a sufficient corroboration of our statement.

The libraries of Florence contain nothing further relative to Verrazzano. We have examined the Magliabecchian, the Laurentian, the Palatine, and that of the Academy of Fine Arts.

Neither could we discover any thing concerning him, among the printed works of the Riccardian. The arrangement of the miscellaneous manuscripts in this last, of which there is no index, made it impossible to ascertain any thing with regard to their contents, without carrying our

* He did so also with the translation of Marco Polo. See Apostolo Zeno, Annot. alla Bib. Ital. del Fontanini. Tom. II. p. 300; ed. di Parma. 1804.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

our attempts to get a sight of this work of Hakluyt, it is not in our power to judge how much credit may be due to it, or how far it may be reconcilable with the account of Ramusio.

Each of these statements will doubtless seem more or less probable to different readers, according to their particular manner of weighing historical evidence. There are difficulties in all, which no process can reconcile, and which, whatever view we take of the subject, can hardly be gotten over. Yet on the other hand, so many circumstances seem to concur in favor of one statement and against all the others, that it is almost impossible to refrain from leaning decidedly towards it.

The author of the Chronological Essay upon the History of Florida has not, as far as we have been able to ascertain, found a single follower. It may be said of Charlevoix, that the whole of that part of his work which relates to Verrazzano, is exceedingly inaccurate and fanciful. He not only misrepresents his language, but, with the letter to Francis before him, gives a wrong date to the voyage, placing it a year later than it really took place, and making Verrazzano guilty of the extravagance of addressing himself to Francis for encouragement, at a time when that monarch was a prisoner in the hands of the Spanish, uncertain and anxious for his own fate. Neither does he pretend to tell us why, or by what authority, he so boldly rejects the narrative of Ramusio. He even attributes the interruption of the French voyages of discovery to the terror inspired by the fate of Verrazzano ;

researches further than circumstances would warrant. The private libraries to which we have had access are equally deficient in all notices of this unfortunate man ; and Ramusio was doubtless in the right, when he said, that all but the letter to Francis had been lost.

As the family of Verrazzano has but recently become extinct, it was natural to suppose, that the best chance for discovering something more complete, or more positive, concerning the existence of other documents, would be by ascertaining what was contained in the family library. This we were enabled to do, by the kindness of the gentleman by whom it was arranged previous to its being sold, and whose passion for bibliography had led him to examine every part of it with minute attention. All, however, that was found in it relative to Giovanni, was a manuscript bound up in the family copy of Ramusio, and a few loose papers. These last add nothing to what was already known. The former was purchased by Captain Napier, R. N., and is now in England. We presume that it is nothing more than a copy of the abovementioned cosmographical description, or perhaps of the whole letter, from the Magliabecchian manuscript. Should the present paper chance to meet the eye of Captain Napier, we trust that his well-known passion for Italian history will lead him to favor the public with a description of his manuscript, if, contrary to what we have reason to believe, it contains any notices as yet unpublished.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and, although this forms one of those pretty chains of cause and effect, with which some historians are fond of adorning their pages, yet for those who are disposed to believe it, it may not be useless to observe, that this part, at least, applies equally well to Ramusio's account of the common belief of his age.

The passage, which we have cited from the letters of Caro, is, as far as we know, the only argument that can be reasonably urged against the current tradition. But even this admits of an explanation; nor do we see the necessity of adopting the conjecture of Tiraboschi, although his authority be of the highest order.

In the first place, the second conjecture of this acute critic, namely, that the last voyage of Verrazzano was subsequent to his residence in Rome, may be easily reconciled with the account given by Ramusio, who does not attempt to fix the date of this voyage. This, however, we must confess, seems highly improbable; nor would it be so easy to account for the long silence in which Verrazzano was lost, during the thirteen years which had elapsed between his first voyage and the writing of Caro's letter. It seems far more probable, that he was immediately despatched upon his second expedition, while the enthusiam excited by the first was still warm, and before Francis had advanced into Italy upon his unfortunate attack on the Duchy of Milan. Verrazzano returned to France in July; we learn by the letter of Carli, that he was expected at Lyons in August; Francis entered Italy near the beginning of October, and his progress there was successful up to the 24th of February, in the following year, (1525,) on which day he was defeated and made prisoner in the battle of Pavia.* Thus there was time enough to have fitted out a small fleet, long before this last event; nor was any thing more natural for a monarch like Francis, than to continue, during the exuberance of spirits produced by his own success, a career of adventure which promised such happy results to his kingdom. The representations also of the merchants of Lyons, who, as we learn from the letter of Carli, were anxious to open, by means of Verrazzano, a communication with the lands which he had discovered, must have had some weight with the King, even if success had not always been, with Fran-

* Robertson, "Charles V." Book IV. Guicciardini, Lib. XV. Cap. 5.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

cis, a sufficient motive for engaging in enterprises far more hazardous and difficult. Nor was the honor, which would redound to him from the subjection of distant territories, a slight consideration with one so full of the conceits of ancient chivalry; nor the hope of sharing or eclipsing, in this new world, the glory of the Emperor, whose throne received such lustre from his vast possessions in the west, a prospect likely to escape the attention of a sovereign, whose whole life was one long contest with his hated rival. In short, there are, in the personal character of Francis and his subjects, and in the state of his affairs at the return of Verrazzano, so many reasons why the second voyage should have been immediately undertaken, that we know not how to refuse our belief to the contemporary writers who say that it was.

The chief difficulty that remains, consists in the appellation of "discoverer" as applied to the brother of Verrazzano. But this is not so great, as would at first appear. In whatever way we read the passage, both as it stands in the edition cited by Tiraboschi and in the one before us, we must extend the honor of the title to both of the brothers. Giovanni was undoubtedly the most celebrated; and, as in the case of the Cabots, the glory of one member of the family may have thrown a shade over that of the other. But we can see no reason for supposing, upon the ground taken by Tiraboschi,* that no other than Giovanni can be here spoken of, when the appellation which should distinguish him is applied indiscriminately to both. Nor does it seem a slight confirmation of this view, that the active life, hitherto led by Giovanni, would hardly have admitted of his settling down in quiet indolence, among the attendants of a churchman, while the spirit of adventure was still in vigor in almost every part of Europe; although, on the contrary, the knowledge of the horrid fate of a brother would naturally account for the abandonment of his profession by the individual, whose residence at Rome is placed beyond all doubt by the testimony of Caro.

It would be superfluous to add, that we feel strongly dis-

* "Che non siano state scoperte da voi *o* da vostro fratello." If the *o* were changed into *e*, Tiraboschi's conclusion would seem to be a necessary consequence of the passage; but, as it now reads, and we have consulted more than one edition, it seems evident, that each of the brothers is meant to be spoken of, as an original discoverer. That the name of the person addressed should stand first, is but a common form of epistolary courtesy.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

posed to accept the statement of Ramusio. Apart from its claims to belief as the current contemporary tradition, it should be observed, that it is not given with that appearance of indecision, with which a candid historian qualifies the narration of uncertain events, but with that simple exactness with which we repeat a notorious and well-authenticated fact. When, moreover, we consider the zeal, with which Ramusio devoted the greater part of a long life to the subject of maritime discovery; the opportunities which he enjoyed of deriving his information from personal friends of Verrazzano; his extensive correspondence with some of the most distinguished navigators, as well as with many of the first literary men of the age; and that his celebrated collection was made at no greater distance than Padua, where nothing short of the grossest negligence could have kept him in ignorance of the existence of Verrazzano, at Rome, but a few years previous, and in the family of a well-known prelate; the evidence in favor of his correctness seems to be placed beyond all doubt.

Yet, in spite of the concurrence of so many circumstances, there are still doubts, arising from various trifling incidents connected with the history of Verrazzano, which constrain us to confess, that, while grasping at conviction, we have obtained nothing but uncertain, though perhaps probable conjectures. All that we know with certainty, is, that one great action distinguished him from the mass of adventurers, in an age which had produced a Columbus and a Cabot; while doubt and mystery have enveloped the rest of his career, leaving us uncertain whether we should lament the untimely fate which gave him a prey to the barbarous appetite of cannibals, or execrate the ingratitude which compelled him to sacrifice to a struggle with the daily necessities of life, a mind formed for daring and successful adventure.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ART. III. — *Miriam, a Dramatic Poem.* Boston ; Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 12mo. pp. 124.

THE most natural form of speech is that of dialogue. In real life, the drama is earlier than the oration or the poem. Men talked together by twos and by threes, long before they had occasion to sing songs or to address senates. They invented language for the service and pleasure of every-day life, thinking of nothing further than its use in making love and managing their children and servants. When in later days society had grown, and art and refinement crept in, this homely instrument was taken up and applied to a wider purpose ; it was employed to express trains of careful thought, curious inventions of fancy, the deep solitary musings of thoughtful genius, and the burning inspiration of the bard and the patriot. To this end, it of necessity somewhat changed its character ; it became less colloquial, and more formal, stately, and graceful. Still more did it become so, when, instead of being spoken to the ear, it came to be written down in painful characters for the eye ; when what had been "winged words" grew stationary, and instead of flying to the mind through the indolent ear, waited in grave black forms, upon a dead page, to be sought for by the inquisitive eye. Thus the active, sparkling, witty dialogue, with which man began his life on earth, passed into the prosy speech, the grave treatise, the methodical dissertation, the measured poem.

All these, being not the natural but the artificial use of a natural instrument, were of course liable to all the infirmities of human art, and among others, to the special one of being heavy and tedious. The man in conversation, who harangues instead of talking, has departed from the primitive type of humanity, and become a bore ; and when one of his harangues, or any similar production, deprived of the life imparted to it by the countenance, voice, and occasion, has been made a fixture by the pen or the printing-press, the chance is that it has grown to be tenfold more tedious, and baffles the most patient attention. Nothing, but use, could tolerate this mechanical method of receiving ideas. To the unaccustomed, it is but a rude, bungling, unsatisfactory imitation of the easy and cheerful primitive speech. A grown man, though he should master the alphabet and the spelling-book, will hardly learn to enjoy

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

reading. He can listen with delight to animated conversation, he can bend an unfatigued attention to even a profound discussion, and bear his part in it with the readiness of a vigorous intellect; but over an oration in print, or even an amusing tale, his mind wanders, and he falls asleep. Custom has not rendered easy to him the unnatural process of receiving thought through the eye, instead of the ear. Thousands, we doubt not, who listened with enthusiasm to the recitation of old Homer's poems, would have accounted the perusal of them on parchment, as dull as it is to the idlest sophomore of these degenerate days.

Hence it might be expected, that written composition would seek those forms, which should most nearly resemble the primitive forms of familiar intercourse. Accordingly we find at all times a large tendency toward the dialogue. Even historical narrative originally, as in the Old Testament and in the classical writers, was greatly dramatic. At all times there have been sober men, who have thought to make philosophy attractive, by putting it into the mouths of interlocutors. Plato and Cicero of old, Fenelon and Littleton, Southey and Landor in later days, have relieved the gravity of discussion and the formality of set treatises, by a certain approach to the more natural and lively method of conversation. Modern novels are for the most part dramatic in their whole structure; and the drama itself never has ceased to offer an attractive model of composition, even to those who have no thought of an actual representation on the stage. The poets have especially adopted this method, and in many instances with illustrious success. Milton, perhaps, never excelled his own "Comus" and "Sampson"; and within the present generation, many gifted authors have given this fashion to their ripest and most beautiful inventions. Wilson has done nothing of truer genius or more affecting interest, than his "City of the Plague." Mrs. Hemans has thrown all the exquisite power of her most impassioned manner into her "Siege of Valencia." Milman, with less passion, but with much of the splendor of elaborate art, has written his fine dramas on sacred subjects. Byron took the dramatic form, after trying all others, and adhered to it with enthusiasm, making it the medium of some of the noblest as well as most exceptionable creations of his great mind. Very recently, two writers have made their first public essay in this department; the one presenting in "Philip Van

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Artevelde," the most extended, and, in some points of view, the most ambitious work of the kind in our language, the other bringing forward in "Ion," the most finished imitation of the classic model. And finally, in this country, we have, in the "Percy's Masque" and "Hadad" of Hillhouse, finished specimens of graceful and powerful art. To this list, we should add the great works of Joanna Baillie, as the most remarkable of all, if it were not that she designed them for representation, and accordingly framed them as acting plays, rather than as dramatic poems. Unsuccessful as they have been in the former character, in the latter they will be read as long as poetry and truth find admirers.

There must be some peculiar advantages attendant on this form of composition, or it would not thus engage the labors of the gifted, in the face of its obvious difficulties. No doubt the associations of romance and feeling with the drama, with its gigantic works in past times and its fairy illusions in childhood, have done something to effect this result. No doubt the natural interest, that pertains to conversation, has done something. There is much in the circumstance that the reader is introduced to persons, rather than things, to things only as they affect persons, and to persons themselves *in propriâ personâ*, if it be not a bull to say so, and not in description or narrative. He sees, hears, becomes acquainted with them; he does not merely hear about them. The author, too, finds facilities for invention in the circumstance, that, speaking in the place of others, and not in his own person, he is compelled frequently to vary his position, to look on all matters from different points of view, and, instead of being confined to that one set of feelings, associations, and opinions which belong to himself, to express those which are suitable to many. He thus in fact multiplies himself; opens many veins of thought, and gathers innumerable suggestions of fancy, from which he would be wholly debarred if writing in monologue. The field of the drama thus becomes one of inexhaustible fertility. Imagination, personating now one and now another, looking on nature, on man, and on the incidents of the scene, first with the feelings of one party and then with those of another, gathers novelty and riches at every step of the progress.

This however implies the power of throwing aside one's identity, and casting himself into the place of another. This great power of the imagination is perfectly possessed by few,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and every degree of imperfection unfits for the work. Here, therefore, lies the chief impediment to success. The author is tempted at every turn to forget his assumed character and to speak in his own tongue ; thus to destroy the verisimilitude by causing the persons of the scene to recite descriptions or sentiments, beautiful in themselves and well suited to the author, but inappropriate to the character and situation. Few have the self denial, requisite to blot out some of their happiest passages, simply because they are inappropriate. Authors are, in this, too like the pretty actress, who makes herself ridiculous by the rich elegance of dress, with which she acts the part of the bar-maid, sacrificing to her own appearance the propriety of the piece. We can hardly take up a drama, without finding occasion to smile at this folly. Perhaps no one is wholly free from it. It is the easy vice of the dramatist, occasionally to be guilty of which, is less to be accounted a proof of weakness, than to be free from it a proof of power.

But in this particular, as well as in some others, we allow a latitude to a dramatic poem, which would not be tolerated in an actual play. The latter is subject to all the severe rules, which pertain to the class of works to which it belongs. The former, partaking only partially the characteristics of that class, is free from the rigid observance of many of its laws, and is to be judged, in reference to them, leniently and generously. The poet is to be allowed to peep through the characters more frequently ; since he does not profess to make them act in their own persons, but to use them simply as instruments for the utterance of his poetry. A dramatic poem is poetry in the form of dialogue ; a regular tragedy, is dialogue in the form of poetry. Poetry is the essence of the one, with the drama for its accident; the drama is the essence of the other, with poetry for its accident. In the latter, the imitation of real life, and the proprieties of character and occasion, are far more rigidly demanded than in the former ; scenical representation and delusion being its aim, while the aim of the other is poetical representation alone. Hence the dramatic poem allows greater freedom, is less tramelled and limited, is more excursive, admits of licenses in ornament, in description, in rhetoric, in digression, which would be inadmissible in what was intended for the actual stage. Highly wrought passages of picturesque illustration,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

sentiment elaborately drawn out and exquisitely finished, extended philosophical reflections and gorgeous imagery, all find an appropriate place in the one, but are incongruous in the other. Such passages often occur in the works of the dramatists; but they are felt to be blemishes, however beautiful in themselves, because unnatural and misplaced, and are blotted out from the prompter's edition.

The writer of the work before us has hinted, in one word of her preface, at the distinction which thus exists between a regular tragedy and a dramatic poem. She has a fair claim to be judged accordingly. Thus judged, the reader meets with no disappointment. He finds what the title leads him to expect, — a poem, not a drama; not destitute of dramatic effect, but not sacrificing to it any free expression of sentiment or feeling, which any form of the poetic art would admit. Not that there are digressions, which need to be apologized for; on the contrary, the poem flows on steadily, with unusual singleness of aim, from beginning to end. The story is one, simple and unembarrassed; with just personages enough to carry it clearly through, and each performing with directness and force precisely the office which falls to him in bringing about the catastrophe. There is great skill and merit in this. It is so different from the violent strainings after effect, and the spasmodic inventions of situations and surprises, and the exclamatory and clap-trap contortions, by which some have thought to make a display of power, that we have been quite *refreshed*, we would say, if we dared use that word; — at any rate, the quiet progress of the story, without any parade of power, is a sure indication of true power, which does its work with simplicity and self-ignorance. We are inclined to apply to the author, what Stuart the artist said of a young painter; "That young man does not know how well he has executed this."

Another circumstance which has given us great pleasure, we will remark on here, before proceeding to an examination of the poem. It has been composed without any reference to the arbitrary forms of dramatic literature, such as the traditionary division into five acts. It is a continuous composition, from beginning to end, possessing, as a poem in any other form would do, all the freedom that belongs to the natural attitude of the subject; its native proportions being unaffected by the operation of any artificial standard. If one propose to himself a regular tragedy, he must of course comply with the laws of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

regular tragedy; and it is certainly a noble thing, to see a masterly genius walk gracefully through that difficult work, wearing his fetters as if they were ornaments. But if one propose only a poem to be read, not acted, there seems to be no good reason for his encumbering himself with those conventional impediments, in addition to the inherent difficulties of the style he has chosen. No one but a truly Shakspearian genius could do this, without finding himself compelled to distort the features and falsify the proportions of his subject. He would find his characters assuming constrained attitudes, and the drapery lying in stiff and formal folds.

> "Lesbia wears a robe of gold,—
> But all so close the nymph hath laced it,
> Not a charm of beauty's mould
> Presumes to stay where nature placed it."

The effect is as unfortunate on the reader as on the writer. There is kept constantly before his mind's eye the actual stage, with its scenes, and side-doors, and tricks for effect; so that his imagination is called away from the real places and living personages, to the mockery of the painted machine, and the mimicry of the actors. He is compelled to see every thing, as it is described to him in its relation to a certain building, contrived to show off an imitation, and not as a delineation of things and persons actually existing under the blue heavens. We cannot but think, that, in this way, the theatre has exercised an unhappy influence on more than one of the fine arts; that painters and sculptors have been betrayed into copying the copies of nature which had affected them on the stage, instead of drawing and carving from nature itself. Their imaginations have thus been put in a false position, and the result has been a false conception of the scene, and a false expression of character. When we saw the celebrated group of Niobe, in the Gallery at Florence, we were irresistibly struck with this idea. That group is a copy from the stage. It is a group from the ballet. Instead of the simple, overwhelming, unconscious passion, which must have marked every feature and attitude of the hopeless family at such a terrible moment, the artist has given the studied posture, the careful arrangement of drapery, the conscious face designing and striving to look the true expression, which belong to the trade of professed actors; fine, it may be, as efforts of art, but still *art*, not nature. If there had been no stage to mis-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

lead the artist, he would probably have attained greater simplicity and truth. How many of the painters have been misled in the same way! Raphael shows his superiority in nothing more, than in his capacity to rise above the influence of this artificial model, and look at all times to the truth and simplicity of Nature.

If there be any ground for this remark in the case of these other arts, it is easy to see how liable to injury must be the imagination of the poet, when brought into immediate contact with the technicalities of the stage. It is hardly possible for him to rid himself of the idea. He will be considering, in spite of himself, how a passage will sound in recitation, and how his several personages will speak, look, enter, stand, move, and depart. This will necessarily falsify, to some extent, his conceptions and his descriptions. Its effect is distinctly seen in the case of those who write with most knowledge of what is called stage business; — Knowles, for example, who, though not without talent, always writes as the poet of actors, not of real men. Something of its effect may be traced even on those who write not for the stage, but only retain the prescribed form of dramatic composition. This is not easily pointed out in specific instances, but is felt by the reader in a certain air of constraint and *unreality*, which pervades the scenes.

We would therefore have the poet who writes for the closet only, cast aside altogether the technical forms of dramatic composition; we would not even have him put *exit* and *exeunt omnes* in his margin, because, little words as they are, they contain the whole idea of a painted scene, and grimacing actors, and clapping or hissing auditors. We would have nothing which can remind one of the existence of a theatre, any more than in Campbell's Gertrude of Wyoming, or Southey's Roderic. Why, when the poet has been striving to raise up in the minds of his readers, the vision of actual Rome or Jerusalem, and to absorb them in the real fortunes of Titus or David, why destroy the whole illusion by reminding them of the boards and the curtain? It is dealing worse with them than with the poor lunatic in Horace's famous instance;

> Pol! me occidistis, amici,
> Non servastis, (ait,) cui sic extorta voluptas,
> Et demtus per vim mentis gratissimus error.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

We are indignant at being thus cheated, — thrust down to the poor artifice of gas lights and painted canvas, when we were enjoying the bright skies of Palestine, or the brilliant glories of Greece, — compelled to exchange the image of some immortal hero, at whose fortunes our hearts were beating, for that of some strutting mimic, whose demeanour is but a parody on heroism, he "imitates nature so abominably."

The author of "Miriam" has wholly shunned this evil. She has made a poem which presents to her readers the very persons and places, not their theatrical substitutes, and arranges the whole course of action by the inherent probabilities of the case, not by the convenience of the manager and the prompter. There is nothing throughout the work to remind us of those worthy personages, any more than in "Paradise Lost"; less than in the "Siege of Valencia," or even "Philip Van Artevelde." We say this in commendation. We do not remember, indeed, any work which, in its plan, approaches so nearly to what we conceive to be the true model of the dramatic poem.

The plot has the merit of great singleness, and moves forward steadily and unencumbered from the first line to the last. It never flags in progress or in interest. It is one, whose situations, incidents, and characters offer excellent opportunities for high and tender poetry, and deep tragical effect. It is fixed in the period when Christianity is struggling up into life, amidst the opposition of the world and the terrors of death. The power, the philosophy, the interests of society are arrayed on the one side, and a small band of pure and gentle enthusiasts and self-devoted philanthropists, on the other. The contrast is the finest imaginable for a true poet; for one, who understands human nature, and can sympathize with human glory, looking down contemptuously on the new sect, and who understands Christianity also, deeply, thoroughly, in its interior life, its power, tenderness, force of suffering; uniting the courage and fortitude of a Roman soldier with the gentleness and tears of a timid woman. There are scenes to be drawn here, depicting these characters, and their mutual struggles and conflicts, — when the one party saw its ancient faith falling, and the other its new and immortal faith rising, and each was nerved to combat unto death, — such as fiction never yet has surpassed; scenes to be rightly drawn by the man who shall unite Shakspeare and Milton in his

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

own person. Milman has not reached the mark. Some things he has done well, but he is stately, brilliant, passionless; with more of rhetoric than emotion, an artist more than a poet. Bulwer has attempted somewhat, but has simply committed profanation. Nothing can be more untrue than his portrait of the Christian Olinthus, a coarse, vulgar fanatic. In that sketch we trace no knowledge of the Christian character, no appreciation of its peculiar traits, no sympathy in its exquisite virtue.

The work is yet to be done; a glorious work for some pure genius. Miriam is an approach toward it, in some points successful. The loveliness and strength of that heroine is a Christian combination; it gives a bright glimpse of that spiritual beauty, which the heart images to itself, when it thinks of heavenly virtue arrayed in woman's form; but it does not wholly satisfy, it does not present the full-orbed glory. Nevertheless she is a beautiful imagination, and worthily fulfils her part, which is one of no easy and every-day trial. An exile from Judea, because of the Christian faith, she is dwelling with her father, and a brother younger than herself, in the great capital of the world. There her extraordinary beauty attracts the admiration and love of Paulus, a young Roman nobleman; and notwithstanding the difference of faith, the attachment becomes mutual, and their hearts are pledged. But the devoted and scrupulous Christian sees, with pain, that her lover has no respect for the pure faith; she seeks in vain to convert him from his false and fatal idolatry; he turns a deaf ear to her arguments and her persuasions. When all hope of winning his soul to the doctrine she loves is over, and she perceives that on the chief of all subjects, that of the most absorbing, most abiding, most essential interest, they could have no sympathy of feeling, and could hold no communion of speech or action, she feels that it would be wrong to continue the connexion; she could enjoy no true happiness, nor well pursue the highest objects of life, in union with one who denied and despised all that she accounted most holy and dear. She struggles with her heart, and schools her affections to submit to a renunciation which is to her the taking up the cross. Her feeble frame is shattered by the effort, and she perceives her health sinking beneath the sacrifice; yet, she steadfastly pursues her purpose, and resolves to part from Paulus for ever. She appoints a

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

meeting with him for this purpose, at twilight, in her father's garden. Where and how they have met before, so as to form and ripen their attachment, without any suspicion on the part of her father and brother, or their so much as knowing of her acquaintance with Paulus, is not made to appear. All this happened before the present story begins, and there are previous circumstances enough to be explained without the addition of this.

The appointed evening has arrived. It so happens, that on this same evening, Thraseno and Euphas, her father and brother, are called away to attend the funeral rites of an aged friend, who had suddenly died. The poem opens with their preparation to depart on the melancholy errand. Just as they are about leaving the garden, Miriam enters to prepare for her meeting with Paulus. Her agitation of mind, naturally appearing on her countenance, attracts immediate attention, and leads to the most affectionate inquiries from Thraseno and Euphas. She attempts to parry their question, and gives them no further satisfaction than can be found in the following reply :

MIRIAM.

"My father! I am ill.
A weight is on my spirits, and I feel
The fountain of existence drying up,
Shrinking I know not where, like waters lost
Amid the desert sands. Nay! grow not pale!
I *have* felt thus, and thought each secret spring
Of life was failing fast within me. *Then*
In saddest willingness I could have died.
There have been hours I would have quitted you,
And all that life hath dear and beautiful,
Without one wish to linger in its smiles:
My summons would have call'd a weary soul
Out of a heavy bondage. But this day
A better hope hath dawn'd upon my mind.
A high and pure resolve is nourish'd there,
And even now it sheds upon my breast
That holy peace it hath not known so long.
This night — aye! in a few brief hours, perchance,
It will know calm once more — (or break at once!)
[*Aside.*" — pp. 4, 5.

This of course is unsatisfactory; they complain of her mysteriousness; they wound her feelings, by hinting some

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

dark suspicions. She pleads with them, and at length persuades them to leave her, silenced, but not satisfied. As an introduction to the story, this portion is finely wrought, skilfully opening the character and situation of the parties, and exciting the interest in relation to them, on which the whole fable turns.

Thraseno and Euphas are scarcely gone, when Paulus enters, overflowing with light-hearted gayety, and bursting into expressions of confidence and love. He soon stops, however, checked and alarmed by the expression of her altered countenance. The explanation takes place, and a scene ensues, partly of stormy passion and partly of tender expostulations, which is interrupted in the midst by the sudden return of Euphas. The funeral party has been surprised by a band of Roman soldiers, some slain, and some borne away to prison. Among the latter was Thraseno ; but Euphas, escaping, returns unexpectedly, and surprises his sister in her secret conference with her lover. This awakens his violent indignation, which he expresses to her in severe language, and then assaults Paulus, who easily succeeds in repelling the passionate but weak boy, and would pacify him by offering his services toward effecting the release of his father, when a body of Christians arrives on the spot. They are armed for the emergency, and Euphas, pointing out to them Paulas as the son of that Piso, their chief persecutor, by whose command their friends have just been seized, they prepare to take immediate revenge by putting him to death. This is the point on which the catastrophe hangs, and it is essential to the developement of the plot. It is, however, so entirely an improbable circumstance, so contrary to the spirit of the religion which was then meekly enduring wrong, and whose servants did not fight, nor resist the evil that was offered them, but submitted themselves to Him who judgeth righteously, that it cannot but be regarded as a fatal oversight in the plan. It is impossible to conceive of the Christians, as going armed in the city of Rome, for the purpose of resisting their persecutors by force, much less putting to death in cold blood, and in mere revenge, a young man, who accidentally has fallen in their power. Allowing it however for the sake of the tale, we have at once a nodus of affairs, comprising every element of the most exciting and affecting interest. No situation could be finer for the purposes of a pathetic and tragical *dénouement*.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

It is agreed, that Paulus shall remain in the power of the Christians, while Euphas goes to the palace of Piso and seeks his father's release. It has been proposed by Paulus himself, who is to be put to death, if Thraseno be not restored to his home, by daybreak of the ensuing morning. Miriam, who had fainted in the agitation of her feelings, no sooner hears of her brother's departure on so dangerous and, as it seems to her, hopeless an errand, than she bursts away and follows him. Here ends the first of the three scenes which constitute the poem, having occupied nearly one half of the whole.

We are next introduced to the palace of Piso, and find Euphas pleading his cause before the hard-hearted Roman, whose cool, contemptuous manner toward the defenceless boy, when merely urging his suit on the ground of humanity, is excellently united with the fierceness of his passions, when made acquainted with the danger of his son and the attendant circumstances. Euphas performs his part with great adroitness, exhibiting a mixture of shrewdness and simplicity, that well belong to a smart and passionate lad of sixteen. A portion of this scene we give at length, as a specimen of the work.

EUPHAS.

"I have not yet said all.

PISO.

Not all? Why, that is stranger still. Methought
Thou hadst run through each supplicating phrase
Our language knows; and in good truth, although
The gods themselves are scarce more wont than I
To hear the voice of prayer and agony,
Yet will I own mine ear hath never drunk
Tones and entreaties eloquent as thine.
Thou hast said much, fair lad, and said it well,
And said it all, — in vain. — Dost hear?

EUPHAS.

I do.

PISO.

Why! thou art wondrous calm!

EUPHAS.

Thou man of blood!
I have not yet said all!

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

PISO.

But by the gods,
Thou hast! for I will hear no more this night.
To-morrow, if I 'm in an idle mood,
I 'll hear thee, — on the cross!

EUPHAS.

I read thine eye,
That doth not honor me with wrath or scorn,
But marks me with a proud, cold weariness.
Yet will I utter, — what shall bid that eye
Flash fire!

PISO.

Poor fool! I marvel I have spent
Ev'n thus much time upon thee. Take him hence!
Where are the daring slaves who marshall'd thee?

EUPHAS.

Where is thy son?

PISO.

My son; — my son? saidst thou?

EUPHAS.

Aye! — where is *he?* thine only son? — Paulus,
I think, the name he *nobly* bears.

PISO.

Gone forth
Upon some reckless revel, haply; I know not.
Seekest thou time, that with such idle quest——

EUPHAS.

I seek thy vulnerable spot. If now
I fail! — Know'st thou not aught — whither — or how —

PISO.

I tell thee, no! Read me thy riddle, boy!
The night wears on, and busy hours are mine
Ere to my couch —

EUPHAS.

The couch unvisited
By sleep this night! Oh, were it not for those
Whose lives hang on this chance, I could relent.
How can I aim so near a father's heart?

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

PISO.

This tardiness and would-be mystery
Portend a mighty tale. Look it *be* such.
Why! what a knitted brow and troubled eye!
Say on, and hence!

EUPHAS.

Enough! — Thou hast a son,
Whose life hangs on a word, — a syllable, —
Breath'd from thy lips!

PISO.

Well! excellent! go on.

EUPHAS.

He is a hostage 'mid an armed band,
A pledge thou canst not sport with, for the lives
We came to beg. Give me my father back,
My father and his friends from yonder cells,
And thou shalt have thy haughty son unscath'd
By Christian swords! But if *they* bleed ——

PISO.

Say on,
I would hear all.

EUPHAS.

If to th' appointed spot
They come not all, — age, youth, and woman, — all, —
Ere the red sun shall look aslant the hills
With its first beam, he dies!

PISO.

And is this all?

EUPHAS.

Aye. Now have I said much, — and well, — and not,
Perchance, in vain!

PISO.

Lad, were there but one chance
Thou e'er might'st profit by the kind advice,
I would exhort thee, when again thou seek'st
To save thy life by trick and cunning tale,
Make thou thy story *probable!* — Dost hear?"

* * * * *

PISO.

"*Can* it be true? I feel
A cold and sudden shudd'ring in my veins.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Tell me once more, — I know 't is mockery, —
Yet would I hear thy tale again, false boy!
My son, thou say'st ——

EUPHAS.

Circled with Christian swords,
Stands waiting thy behest! for those, whose friends
This night have fallen within thy fatal grasp,
Now hold thine own proud darling fast in bonds,
Where rescue or protecting power of thine
Cannot avail him aught. *Revenge* thou may'st,
But canst not save him, — but by sparing those
Whom thou didst purpose for a cruel death.

PISO.

And where, — in what dark nook ——

EUPHAS.

Nay, tyrant! but
Thou canst not dream that I will answer thee.

PISO.

I will send forth my soldiers, — they shall search, —
It may be false, — but they shall overrun
Palace and hut, and search each hiding-place
In all this mighty city, till my son
Be found!

EUPHAS.

When he *is* found, that son will be, ——
Knowest thou what? Remember, — at sunrise!

PISO.

Now by the great god Mars! but thou shalt die
For this, be thy tale false or true. Till now
I never felt these firm knees tremble. — Speak!
How fell my noble Paulus in the gripe
Of yonder rav'ning wolves.

EUPHAS.

How came he there?
Alas! — that question hath a dagger's point.
Man! I would rather die than answer it!"

After a time, however, he informs Piso of his son's love for Miriam, on which he exclaims in anger,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"He shall die, the base degenerate boy."

* * * * *

"Now am I free!
My son hangs not upon my palsied arm,
Checking the half-dealt blow!

EUPHAS.

Dost thou exult?
Oh heaven! to think such spirits are! — Piso!
Wilt thou indeed forget ——

PISO.

Strange error thine
To tell this secret, boy! — I loved my son,
And loved nought else on earth. In him alone
Centred the wild, blind fondness of a heart
All adamant, except for him! and thou, —
Thou, foolish youth, hast made me hate and scorn
Him whom my pride and love ——— Knowest thou not
Thou hast but sealed thy fate? His life had been
More precious to me than the air I breathe;
And cheerfully I would have yielded up
A thousand Christian dogs from yonder dens
To save one hair upon his head. But now —
A Christian maid! — Were there none other? — Gods!
Shame and a shameful death be his! — and thine!

EUPHAS.

It is the will of God. My hopes burnt dim
Ev'n from the first, and are extinguish'd now.
The thirst of blood hath rudely chok'd at last
The one affection which thy dark breast knew,
And thou art *man* no more. Let me but die
First of thy victims." — pp. 57 – 68.

At this juncture Miriam enters, and diverts the whole current of Piso's feelings, by the wonderful resemblance of her person to that of the fair Jewess whom he had passionately loved in his youth, and has never ceased to lament. In some beautiful lines, he is made to address her as the spirit of that early love. In fact, it turns out that Miriam is her daughter, and the softened Roman consents to grant their petition.

Every thing seems now arranged, and a favorable issue certain. But on looking at the list of prisoners whose release is claimed, the eye of Piso falls on the name of Thraseno. He remembers his successful rival in early love, for whom he has

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ever since cherished a deadly hatred; his fiercest passions are roused, and he refuses to give up this opportunity of revenge. We must gratify ourselves, with citing a portion of the paragraphs in which Miriam expostulates with him.

PISO.

"Maiden, be warned! All this
I know. It moves me not.

MIRIAM.

Nay, one thing more
Thou knowest not. There is on all this earth, —
Full as it is of young and gentle hearts, —
One man alone that loves a wretch like thee;
And he, thou say'st, must die! All other eyes
Do greet thee with a cold or wrathful look,
Or, in the baseness of their fear, shun thine;
And he whose loving glance alone spake peace,
Thou say'st must die in youth! Thou know'st not yet
The deep and bitter sense of loneliness,
The throes and achings of a childless heart,
Which yet will all be thine! Thou know'st not yet
What 't is to wander 'mid thy spacious halls,
And find them desolate! wildly to start
From thy deep musings at the distant sound
Of voice or step like his, and sink back sick, —
Aye! sick at heart, — with dark remembrances!
To dream thou seest him as in years gone by,
When, in his bright and joyous infancy,
His laughing eyes amid thick curls sought thine,
And his soft arms were twined around thy neck,
And his twin rosebud lips just lisp'd thy name, —
Yet feel in agony 't is but a dream!
Thou know'st not yet what 't is to lead the van
Of armies hurrying on to victory,
Yet, in the pomp and glory of that hour,
Sadly to miss the well-known snowy plume,
Whereon thine eyes were ever proudly fixed
In battle-field! — to sit, at deep midnight,
Alone within thy tent, — all shuddering, —
When, as the curtain'd door lets in the breeze,
Thy fancy conjures up the gleaming arms
And bright young hero-face of him who once
Had been most welcome there!" — pp. 86, 87.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Piso, after some struggle, seems to yield, and the brother and sister depart in joy.

The poem now returns to Paulus, who has been meanwhile waiting the result, and who in a long soliloquy expresses the anxious and desponding state of his mind. As it grows light toward the morning, Euphas and Miriam return with the joyful announcement of the success of their errand, and Miriam, finding that life is fast ebbing within her, takes affectionate leave of her lover, ere he returns to his father. Presently the prisoners are seen approaching; —

EUPHAS.

"What may it mean?
Miriam, see you the faces of the group?

MIRIAM.

Oh no! Whate'er I gaze upon is robed
In strange and lurid light. The grave's dim hues
Are gathering fast o'er earth. — Art thou not pale?

EUPHAS.

It may be. Fear and doubt are on my soul.
Paulus, look thou! — yon troop come not, methinks,
Like prisoners let loose, like victims snatch'd
From agony and death! No buoyancy
Is in their steps, — no song upon their lips, —
No triumph on their brows! They pause! — closer
They draw their feeble ranks!

PAULUS.

Grief and dismay
Are with that group.

EUPHAS.

Oh God! I see him not!
My father is not there!" — pp. 115, 116.

The tyrant has kept his promise to the ear, but broken it to the hope. The body of the father is restored to the children, but its life had been sacrificed. Paulus, in horror, rejects his parent and his religion; and while the dirge is sung over the body of the martyr, the spirit of his exhausted and suffering daughter takes its flight from earth.

It is not necessary to add any thing to what we have said of the merit of the plan. It is evidently great; and our readers may judge from the extracts we have made, that it has

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

been well executed. The characters are well sustained, and several passages are marked by high dramatic power. Indeed, the work is so unquestionably a successful effort of distinguished talent, that we have little more to do, than give an account of it, and express our satisfaction at its publication, accompanied with the hope, that the fair author will continue to amuse her leisure, in a manner so honorable to herself and so acceptable to the public. There can be no doubt, that forms of still more perfect beauty lie deep in the quarry of her thought, and need only the skilful hand of toil to fashion them into being.

In the exercise of a minute criticism, we might undoubtedly point out many minor blemishes, but to do so would rather be making much of our own small acuteness, than benefiting the author or the readers. Nothing is easier than to detect maculæ. It is but to darken the eye, and they may be seen on the sun. It is essential, however, to that fair and manly criticism, which seeks to advance the true interests of letters, that works of taste should be impartially examined and impartially spoken of. Absolute perfection belongs to no work, and therefore indiscriminate applause is foolish and false. It is as unjust to the cause of letters and as unfair to a generous-minded author, as indiscriminate condemnation. "No wise man," says Jeremy Taylor, "can well endure to be praised by him that knows not how to dispraise and reprove." We would therefore make our commendation worth something, by a few friendly strictures.

The most obvious fault is that which has been already noticed, which we need not specify again. That which has next attracted our attention is one of frequent occurrence, and which we hardly know how to mention, without appearing to say what is inconsistent with some former remarks. We think that the author has sometimes overstepped the limits of the legitimate distinction between a drama and a dramatic poem, and forgotten too much the consideration of the perfect suitableness of a passage to the person who speaks it. There are instances, in which the sympathy of the reader with the character speaking is from this cause broken. The second paragraph in the poem presents an example. If it had been written in the person of the author, it would have been an appropriate description; but in the mouth of Thraseno it is oratorical to a fault. The same is to be said of the words in

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

which he next replies to Miriam, and of those which Miriam uses in evading his urgent attempt to learn her secret.

MIRIAM.

" Urge me not now. I cannot, — cannot *yet.*
Have I not told you that a starlike gleam
Was rising on my darken'd mind? *When Hope*
Shall sit upon the tossing waves of thought,
As broods the halcyon on the troubled deep,
Then, if my spirit be not blighted, wreck'd,
Crush'd, — by the storm, I will unfold my griefs.
But until then, — and long it will not be! —
Yet in that brief, brief time my soul must bear
A fiercer, deadlier struggle still!" — pp. 7, 8.

We feel the same objection to the following, which we quote, notwithstanding, for its great beauty.

MIRIAM.

" A ripe and goodly sheaf hath gently fall'n.
Let peace be in the good man's obsequies;
I will not carry there a troubled soul.

THRASENO.

Where wouldst thou seek for peace or quietness
If not beside the altar of thy God?

MIRIAM.

Within these mighty walls of sceptred Rome
A thousand temples rise unto her gods,
Bearing their lofty domes unto the skies,
Grac'd with the proudest pomp of earth; their shrines
Glittering with gems, their stately colonnades,
Their dreams of genius wrought into bright forms,
Instinct with grace and godlike majesty,
Their ever-smoking altars, white-robed priests,
And all the pride of gorgeous sacrifice.
And yet these things are nought. Rome's prayers ascend
To greet th' unconscious skies, in the blue void
Lost like the floating breath of frankincense,
And find no hearing or acceptance there.
And yet there *is* an Eye that ever marks
Where its own people pay their simple vows,
Though to the rocks, the caves, the wilderness,
Scourg'd by a stern and ever-watchful foe!
There *is* an Ear that hears the voice of prayer

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Rising from lonely spots where Christians meet,
Although it stir not more the sleeping air
Than the soft waterfall, or forest breeze.
Think'st thou, my father, this benignant God
Will close his ear, and turn in wrath away
From the poor sinful creature of his hand,
Who breathes in solitude her humble prayer?
Think'st thou he will not hear me, should I kneel
Here in the dust beneath his starry sky,
And strive to raise my voiceless thoughts to Him,
Making an altar of my broken heart?" — pp. 9, 10.

This certainly is a style which belongs to the author, and is quite ill placed when put into the mouth of the heroine. It is the trying alternative of either rejecting things like this, which come gushing from the poet's fancy, or of inserting them at the hazard of injuring the verisimilitude of the scene, that makes the narrative a far safer and freer path than the dramatic. As far as we can discern, indeed, the narrative has all the advantages which may be claimed for the dramatic, (advantages which arise chiefly from the rapid intercourse of the persons,) and together with them, all those which spring from the author's mind being untrammelled in the choice of description and the selection of imagery. Any thing which the subject suggests, and which cannot be given with propriety to any of the characters of the piece, may always be safely said in the person of the author. There is one especial convenience as regards description, of which we have been often reminded in reading these pages; the description, namely, of the countenances and attitudes of the speakers, often so important to be known, in order to the full interpretation of their words. This used to be given, before these days of refinement, in brief prose sentences of italic type; but that fashion was laughed at and driven out, and now no one dares to put down the most necessary hint of the sort, though it should illuminate a page. In narrative composition this difficulty does not exist; wherein lies a great advantage. How finely does Scott, the most dramatic of authors, avail himself of this advantage throughout his works. Thus, for example, after the melancholy song, in the third canto of "Marmion"; —

"The air was sad, — but sadder still
It fell on Marmion's ear,
And plained as if disgrace and ill
And shameful death were near.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

He drew his mantle past his face,
Between it and the band,
And rested with his head a space
Reclining on his hand.
His thoughts I scan not;" &c.

Then presently, after a few reflections, —

"For soon Lord Marmion raised his head,
And smiling to Fitz-Eustace said, —" &c.

Now none of this, striking and important as it is, could have had place in a purely dramatic work, and much of the vividness and pathos of the scene must have been lost. In the poem before us, we meet with frequent instances of embarrassment and constraint, arising, as it would seem, from the want of some such vent to the imagination of the writer, when she would convey to her readers the precise picture which she was looking at. In such cases, what could she do? She must either repress her desire, and so "die unheard, with a most voiceless thought," which a poet dislikes of all things; or she must venture on some expedient of doubtful propriety. Accordingly we have many instances like the following.

"How! there 's a light within thy lofty glance,
A flush upon thy cheek, a settled calm
Upon thy lip and brow!" — p. 22.

"I bear all this!
I mark the frightful paleness of thy cheek,
The wild and wandering glances of thine eye." — p. 51.

"In my mighty wrath
I have no words, — no frenzy now. 'T is deep,
Too deep for outward show." — p. 66.

Such descriptions evidently belong to the author, not to the speaker. On the page in which the last occurs, is another similar to it, which betrays a secret of the writing-desk. Piso, still supposing Miriam to be a spirit, asks, in reply to a remark of hers, who had sent her to him?

MIRIAM.

"The Christian's God;
The God thou knowest not.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

PISO.

Thou art of earth!
I see the rose-tint on thy pallid cheek,
Which was not there at first; it kindles fast!
Say on. Although I dare not meet that eye,
I hear thee.

MIRIAM.

He hath given me strength,
And led me through the broad lone streets." — p. 72.

It is clear that the whole of Piso's exclamation, which we have put in italics, is an after-thought of the author, — thrust into the midst of Miriam's reply, after the work was finished. As it stands, the metre is false; the line

"I hear thee. He hath given me strength,"

is short by two syllables. Undoubtedly it originally stood,

"The God thou know'st not, *He* hath given me strength."

This is a complete line. But the author, anxious to give to the reader the whole vision as it lay before her, interposed the description of Miriam's appearance, without thinking to count the syllables. This is not the only inadvertence in respect to metre. An instance may be seen in one of the lines quoted on our preceding page. Another occurs on page 59.

EUPHAS.

"Hers is a face thou never wilt behold.

PISO.

I will.
On her, — on her shall fall my worst revenge."

The first of these lines is full, without the two next words. The matter would be properly adjusted by placing "I will" in the stead of the first "on her" in the third line.

The passages already quoted are sufficient to enable our readers to judge of the style in which this work is composed. It seems to us to flow with sufficient ease, to have a good cadence and emphasis, and to be ornamented and varied with good taste. If in any thing to be complained of, it is its diffuseness; it wants the compactness of phrase, the terseness and point, which should be aimed at by one who seeks the highest excellence. We observe no resemblance in any other respect, to the luxurious exuberance of Mrs. Hemans's diction, who had a way entirely her own of saying every thing in peri-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

phrasis, and yet rarely giving ground for complaint. She is a dangerous model. No one could imitate her without being ruined. The writer before us is no imitator ; but if she has ever observed how often Mrs. Hemans nearly spoils a fine passage by verbosity, and is saved from spoiling it only by a fascinating felicity of manner, which none other can emulate, she will understand how hazardous in any hands is the tendency to verboseness. Southey, with all his flow of elegance and power, does not escape the charge of languor and frequent heaviness through diffuseness. It is the fault which prevents "Roderic" from being the first modern poem. "Miriam" is equally faulty in this particular ; but the author of "Miriam" is still young, and is not, like the great Laureate, too self-complacent to learn. Let her condense, let her blot, let her imitate her great predecessor the Sybil, and increase the value of her leaves by diminishing their number.

Recurring again to the thought with which we began, we suppose that it may help to account for the otherwise singular fact, that in an age when the low state of the drama is a theme of universal remark, the dramatic form has yet been adopted by a number of the first writers of the age. Nothing, we hear it said, can revive the acted drama ; yet many of the finest modern poems covet its dress. This proves how strong is the natural interest in dialogue, and in the expression of character and feeling from the lips of individuals themselves. We believe, however, that this form has not been as popular with readers as with writers. We cannot discover that the dramas of Byron fall below his best works, on the whole ; we are not quite sure that those of Mrs. Hemans are not greatly the first of her productions ; and scarcely a voice in the literary world is found to dissent from the opinion, which assigns to Joanna Baillie a place in the very upper seat of modern poets. Yet her "Plays on the Passions" are not extensively read; Mrs. Hemans's popularity rests on her small pieces; and it has been the fashion to regard Byron's attempts at the drama as failures. Is this to be attributed to the dramatic form of these works? And if so, is it not because their character and pretensions are misapprehended? because the image of the stage and the scenery too much obtrudes itself on the mind, and causes them to be judged by a wrong standard, — by fitness for representation, rather than by appropriateness to the characters and passions which belong to the subject ? If so, —

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and we cannot doubt that it is so, — it is of importance that the true purposes and characteristics of the dramatic poem should be better known. When read with a right expectation, and measured by the just standard, it must come to be appreciated according to its merits. Then, the poems which we have named will ascend to their rightful place in the general estimation; then the two works of our own countryman Hillhouse, ("The Masque of Percy" and "Hadad") will be called up from their hiding-places, and it will be acknowledged that they are among the high efforts of the age; the former, a model of the elegant, flowing, and expressive manner which combines a rich ornament with a perfect simplicity, and shows the power of the poet without sacrificing the probability of the scene; the latter, less easy and graceful, but of a stern and lofty power, and a mixture of the awful and the tender, well becoming its solemn and mysterious scenes. Then, too, the question will be asked, — nay, we ask it now, — Why are we not visited again by his classic muse?

Meantime, we indulge the hope, that both writers and readers will learn to refer themselves less to the stage and more to the real scenes of life, and that beautiful and holy delineations of character, conceived in the sacred meditations of exalted genius, will be set forth in such freedom from all conventional forms, as to save them from the pollution of the actual theatre. This will be equivalent to the introduction of a new class of literary composition; equally favorable, as far as we can see, for all that is most lofty and affecting in tragedy, while allowing greater liberty to the fancy of the author, and a wider range of illustration and verse.

ART. IV. — *A New and Copious Lexicon of the Latin Language; compiled chiefly from the "Magnum Totius Latinitatis Lexicon" of Facciolati and Forcellini, and the German Works of Scheller and Luenemann.* Edited by F. P. LEVERETT. Boston; J. H. Wilkins & R. B. Carter. 1836. 8vo. pp. 1004.

IT may seem to some of our readers hardly credible, that at this late period a new Latin Dictionary was needed in the English language. Classical literature has been so long and

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

so much cultivated in the parent country, that the most natural conclusion, to one who has not attended to this subject, certainly is, that whatever can be necessary or convenient in teaching or learning the Latin language, must have been long since provided. But the truth is, — how this fact can be accounted for is not now the question, — that in this department of literature, there has been among the English a great and manifest deficiency. While several nations on the continent of Europe have had Latin lexicons highly improved, and affording most, if not all, the information to be expected from such sources, English scholars, to a great extent, have been obliged to avail themselves of foreign assistance; and where this was not possible, they have had nothing to rely on, in addition to the aid of instructers and their own observation in the course of their reading, but such help as could be derived from the Dictionary of Ainsworth.

The progress of Latin lexicography in modern Europe has not been rapid. The *Catholicon* of John of Genoa, the earliest printed work in this department, first appeared in 1460. It was published, as appears from its date, in the infancy of the typographical art; and is supposed on good authority to have proceeded from the press of Faust, who among the Germans is believed to have been the inventor of the art of printing. The name of Faust, however, does not appear in the volume. The author of this lexicon finished his work in 1286, and was probably aided in his labors by the use of the older vocabularies, particularly that of Papias, a Lombard, who flourished in the eleventh century, and also that of Ugo or Uguccio, an ecclesiastic of Pisa, and afterwards archbishop of Ferrara, who lived about a century later. The supposition of an earlier edition of the *Catholicon* than this of 1460, struck from carved blocks of wood, has not sufficient authority. This work was, without doubt, very imperfect, and appears to have been marked with no considerable erudition. The explanation of words relating to theology was somewhat better than that of others, as might be supposed from the profession of those employed in its composition. With all its defects, however, it was not wholly destitute of merit, and passed through several editions, both in Italy and France.

Omitting several names of less note, we would mention John Reuchlin or Capnio, a German, and Nicholas Perottus,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

archbishop of Siponto, as numbered among those, who in the fifteenth century deserved well of Latin lexicography. But one of the most known of the early Latin dictionaries was that of Calepin. The author was a monk, and took his name from a small town called Calepio, in the territory of Venice as it then existed. Calepin made liberal use of the labors of his predecessors in the preparation of his work, but, as at first published in 1502, it was of no great value. Succeeding scholars corrected some of its errors, and supplied some of its defects, and numerous editions of this dictionary followed each other. Among those who labored to improve the lexicon of Calepin, are found the names of Joh. Passeratius, Jac. Montanus, Lud. de la Cerda, Conrad. Gesner, and Budæus.

In the early part of the sixteenth century, this department of Latin literature received a valuable addition in the well-known *Lexicon Ciceronianum* of Nizolius. This work, as improved by its successive editors, especially by Facciolati, exhibits in a form easily accessible the great body of Ciceronian Latinity, and, though substantially incorporated into later dictionaries, is still of great use to the student. It was less, however, the object of Nizolius to define the meaning of words, than to furnish forms of expression, and a general phraseological storehouse. But the claims of lexicography were not wholly disregarded. The author arranged the phrases, which he had collected, under distinct heads, though not always with a just discrimination; and this Thesaurus was an important accession to Latin literature, considered merely as a dictionary.

Robert Stephens, who was so highly distinguished both as a scholar and a printer, first published his *Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ* in 1531. This was a work of great labor and value. The author issued a second edition in 1536, and a third in 1543, with large improvements.

In the year 1571, was published at Leipsic the first edition of the *Thesaurus Linguæ Scholasticæ* of Basil Faber. This author, in the composition of his work, departed in a great measure from the track of his predecessors. It was not his aim to furnish a vocabulary of the Latin language, with a bare explication of the meaning of words, but to enter more largely, than had hitherto been done, into the regions of poetry and criticism, and to exhibit in addition an extensive

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

view of idioms, peculiar constructions, and elegant phraseology. Hence his quotations from the Roman authors, both in prose and verse, are numerous and extended, and often selected with judgment and taste. Illustrations of mythology, geography, and history, constitute an important part of the work, and at the time of its appearance must have rendered it peculiarly valuable. The Thesaurus of Faber was improved by succeeding editors, and especially by Joh. Matt. Gesner, whose edition appeared at Leipsic in 1726.

Johannes de Garlandia, who flourished in the eleventh century, was the first Englishman who turned his attention to compiling a Latin dictionary, and his *Synonyma et Æquivoca* was first published at Cologne, in 1490, and soon after in London. About half a century after, Thomas Elyot published his *Bibliotheca.* Elyot was succeeded by numerous authors in the same department, among whom the most noted were Thomas Cowper, Francis and Thomas Holyoake, and Adam Littleton. This last-named lexicographer acquired the most reputation by his labors; and his work, especially as improved in the Latin dictionary published at Cambridge in 1693, has very considerable value. The editors of this last work, among other aids, had at their disposal a manuscript collection of authorities from Roman authors, in three volumes, folio, by John Milton.

In the year 1735, a corrected and enlarged edition of the dictionary of Robert Stephens was published in London. In preparing this work for the press, the editors aimed to combine with the Thesaurus of Stephens some of the peculiar excellences of Faber. Their efforts were in a good degree successful; and the publication of the London edition of Stephens brought this branch of lexicography to such a state, that, with the increased means of literary labor, and the new zeal which was manifest in every species of improvement, its subsequent more rapid advance towards perfection might be easily anticipated.

In the mean time, as the only Latin dictionary common in the English schools was that of Coles, which was full of errors and defects, proposals were made in 1714 to Mr. Robert Ainsworth, who enjoyed a high reputation for his knowledge of the Latin language, to prepare a new dictionary, which should better answer the public demand. This he undertook; and after having labored, with some interruptions,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

for more than twenty years, in 1736 he published his *Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ Compendiarius.* The English-Latin Part was a great improvement on any thing of the kind which had preceded it. In the Second Part of the work, where the Latin precedes the English, the arrangement of the definitions was new. Each meaning was numbered, and the authorities, which were placed in a body after the English definitions, were numbered in the same manner for the ease of reference. This was thought an important improvement; but it may be justly questioned, whether the use of this disposition of the authorities is not rather apparent than real. The eye, perhaps, may pass more readily from one part of a definition to another, so far as the English is concerned; but if the authorities on which the definitions rest are to be consulted, a course almost always useful, and sometimes necessary to the student, there is an obvious source of embarrassment. And it will probably be found, likewise, that students, in consequence of this separation, often fail to consult the authorities as they ought, and to receive that advantage from them which they are designed to afford. This Dictionary of Ainsworth was very favorably received; but with some excellences it had likewise its faults. Succeeding editors have somewhat improved it; but on comparing in various places the late London stereotype edition with that of 1736, the changes appear to be few. Some errors have been corrected, and some deficiences supplied, but the work is essentially what it was at first.

In the year 1715, a new Latin Lexicon was begun at Padua, chiefly at the suggestion, and under the superintendence and advice of Jac. Facciolati the head of the University. Facciolati was advantageously known by his labors in the promotion of Latin literature, particularly by his edition of the *Lexicon Ciceronianum* of Nizolius. He was likewise distinguished as one of the best writers in the Latin language among the moderns. To execute this work, he employed Egidio Forcellini, who had been his pupil, and who appears to have been every way qualified for the undertaking to which he was invited. At first the views of these scholars extended no further than to an enlarged edition of Calepin. This they finished in about four years; but, in the course of the work, they had become so sensible of the inherent and irremediable faults of Calepin, that they determined to begin a Latin lexicon,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

in some respects, on a new plan, and which should be independent of all that had preceded it, in the selection of words, in the definitions, and the arrangement of the senses. To the accomplishment of this great literary project Forcellini applied himself with uncommon assiduity, and in 1761 the Lexicon was completed. It was first published in 1771, several years after the death of the author. The names of Facciolati and Forcellini are united in this work, but it ought in justice to be stated, that the principal merit of its execution belongs to the latter. Facciolati himself says in reference to it, "Vix ego in plerasque voces quippiam contuli præter consilium, in multas autem ne consilium quidem."

The plan of this dictionary was digested with great care and judgment. The ancient authors in the Latin language were classed according to several chronological periods; as the purity of their style is found to correspond, in a great measure, to the age in which they flourished. The first period, extending from the time of the earliest Latin writers to the death of Augustus, and constituting the golden age of Latin literature, furnishes the great body of authorities on which the explication of words is grounded; later authors being referred to, in general, only as they in some way illustrate the earlier class, or afford some new meaning. In this way the rank of words and idioms as to their purity, and, for the most part, as to their propriety and elegance, is easily settled. To illustrate this portion of the work in part, reference may be made to the word *ala, a wing*. Here the combinations "movere alas," and "quatere alas," are quoted from Virgil; but "explicare alas" is referred to Martial, and "expandere alas" to the elder Pliny. "Quatere alas" is found likewise in Pliny; but Virgil is properly named as authority for this expression, as being an earlier writer.

It may be here remarked, that it ought by no means to be concluded, because phrases, idioms, or words occur in writers of a late date, that they were not current in the best age of the language. It is clearly possible, that many of them might have been, and without doubt some of them were, used in the lost works of Cicero, Sallust, Livy, and others of the same literary period. In a fragment of one of Cicero's orations, recovered by Mai, is the word *lenities*, which had before been placed in glossaries only. If the reading of this fragment is admitted to be genuine, *lenities* can no longer be

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

considered a word of suspicious or base origin ; and, from the manner in which it is employed, this word was manifestly in common and reputable use. In a fragment of Cicero's treatise "de Republicâ," first published by the same editor, is the word *convenicium*, which, at the time of the discovery of this fragment, had been long lost from the language. But the consideration stated above can have no influence on the composition of a dictionary, which must of necessity be constructed of materials actually existing.

The next important principle, settled by Forcellini in the composition of his Lexicon, respected the classification of meanings and their arrangement. This branch of the subject had been treated by preceding lexicographers with much less care than its importance demands. Very different meanings had often been confounded, and distinctions often introduced, where there was really no difference. The labors of the author here were attended with distinguished success. It would be perhaps too much to say, that he is never in error. The difficulties in the way of a clear and unobjectionable classification of meanings are in some cases nearly or quite insurmountable ; but that he improved greatly on all who preceded him, is undeniable. In the arrangement of the meanings, that is placed first, which from the use of a word among authors of the first class, appears to have been the earliest, and from which there is the most ready and easy transition to other meanings ; and these again are made to follow each other on the same principle. All parts of a definition, therefore, illustrate each other; and, from a comparison of the whole, the real force and import of a word can hardly be mistaken.

As to the definitions, very little is made to depend on an accumulation of synonyms, a method which often obscures rather than elucidates a signification. Definitions are given for the most part in descriptive language, so precise and definite, that, with the subjoined examples, the reader is satisfied, that he has every thing before him necessary to a full understanding of the case in question. Robert Stephens, in the first edition of his lexicon, defined the words in the French language. In the second and third editions, the French was excluded, and Latin was introduced. One reason for this change was to procure for his work a more general currency. Forcellini has given first the corresponding Italian word, then the Greek, and, after these, the full definition in Latin. Care is

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

likewise taken, in the selection of authorities, that the different constructions of a word with others should be exhibited, so far as such constructions affect the sense.

The metaphorical senses are also distinguished from the literal. Names of the gods in ancient mythology, names of persons current in the history of the fabulous and heroic ages, and names of places, rivers, mountains, and whatever else relates to the same early period, are inserted with the proper references to the authors, from whom the information is derived. Besides the classes of words already mentioned, others of no authority, or for the most part barbarous, are thrown into an appendix. Such is the general plan of the Latin Lexicon of Facciolati and Forcellini, which hardly admits of improvement; and the execution in every part shows extensive learning, great accuracy, diligence, and sound judgment. That, in a work so extensive, every part should be executed with equal success, is not to be expected. The most, however, that succeeding editors have accomplished, is to supply a few omissions; and this lexicon deserves to be reckoned among the most perfect works of the kind, which have ever been composed.

While this dictionary of Forcellini was in progress, a new Latin lexicon was undertaken in Germany, by John Matth. Gesner. His scheme was, to make the London edition of Stephens the basis of his work. In making improvements in this, he professes to have removed many excrescences, to have corrected numerous errors, and to have made large additions. This lexicon was published in 1749, and was a most valuable contribution to lexicography. Not being an independent work, as the author chose to make few alterations in the plan of Stephens, it has less uniformity of execution, than the Lexicon of Forcellini. The different senses of a word are not always philosophically arranged; and authorities are sometimes furnished in disproportionate numbers. The definitions are in Latin, and generally clear and full. As a storehouse of the varieties of Latin phraseology, the Thesaurus of Gesner is of the highest value to the student of Latin literature.

A work was still wanting in this department, of a more popular character; and accordingly, in 1783, J. Im. G. Scheller published his copious German-Latin and Latin-German Lexicon, which, as a universal dictionary of the Latin language for the use of students generally, has some advantages over

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Gesner. The arrangement of words is throughout alphabetical. In the Thesaurus of Gesner, the order of derivation is observed. The definitions are in the German language, and the authorities are selected with admirable judgment, both for confirming the significations assigned to the words, and illustrating the varieties of grammatical construction. Many of these passages are translated, especially where any difficulty can be supposed to exist. To the arrangement of the different meanings of words Scheller has paid unusual attention, and the whole work is digested throughout on a uniform plan. This Lexicon was received in Germany with great approbation. Two editions of it were published by the author; the third, which appeared in 1804, soon after the death of Scheller, had been revised by him. No stronger proof is needed of its excellence, than the fact, that for more than half a century, as a Thesaurus, it has not been superseded in Germany. An abridgment of it has long been used in schools, and a valuable manual Latin lexicon, chiefly derived from Scheller, has been published by Luenemann. An English translation of Scheller has been lately printed at Oxford; but, so far as we have had opportunity to examine it, we have not formed a high opinion of its merits.

In the year 1799, an edition of Scheller was published in Holland, which had been prepared under the direction of Rhunken. Scheller, in the same manner as Gesner and Forcellini, made his work a general lexicon of the language. The Leyden edition, by the advice of Rhunken, was limited to the proper classic authors, or such as have some reputation for *purity in the choice of words. The reasons assigned for this* course are not altogether satisfactory. Words used by authors of little note actually occur, and the student needs some explication of them. At least it may be useful to know on what authority such words rest; and, if the writer who has first used them is named and characterized, as is done by Forcellini, there is little danger, that a dictionary so constructed will give currency to barbarisms.

To furnish any further details of the progress of Latin lexicography on the continent of Europe, is unnecessary for our object, which is to bring distinctly into view the abundant means of improving our Latin-English dictionaries, which have been accumulating during the last century. The Dictionary of Ainsworth, as before stated, was published first in 1736. The author, therefore, could have received no assistance from the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

materials collected by Gesner, Forcellini, Scheller, and others of a later date. Even the London edition of Robert Stephens was published in 1735, and could have been of no material use to Ainsworth. Indeed, this edition of Stephens is not mentioned in Ainsworth's Preface. That Ainsworth's Dictionary, therefore, should fail to satisfy the requirements of the present time, might be expected as a matter of course. Yet, strange as it may seem, Ainsworth's Dictionary is almost the only one found in our schools. The student first becomes acquainted with the abridgment, while learning the elements of the Latin language; and, if he ever has the good fortune to attain to any thing better, it is too often only the same work in its original form.

A Latin Thesaurus was, indeed, prepared by Dr. Adam of Edinburgh, the author of the well-known Latin Grammar; but owing, if we are correctly informed, to some difficulty in making arrangements for its publication, between the proprietors of the manuscript and the booksellers, it has never been put to press. An abridgment of this work was published by the author in 1805, varied in different parts so as to afford specimens of several dictionaries for different classes of scholars, which he was then preparing. In 1814, several years after the death of Dr. Adam, there appeared a second edition of this abridgment, prepared on a uniform plan. This dictionary was very useful to the student in reading the common school classics, but it was never very extensively circulated, and is now, it is believed, entirely out of print. Ainsworth's, therefore, being, in fact, the only work in this department, to which our students generally have had access, it may not be a useless undertaking to examine a little more particularly into its real character. From the facts above stated, we might infer without danger of mistake, that this lexicon would be found in many respects deficient; yet an actual exhibition of what some of these deficiences are, may be more satisfactory, and show more clearly the necessity of some new work, than any general conclusion from the time and circumstances in which the author wrote.

For this purpose we will take, not the original edition of 1736, but the last London stereotype edition; as this is the one which the student is most likely to find in the shops, and the editor professes to have revised the whole. It is indispensable in the dictionary of any language, that it should

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

exhibit all the meanings of the words in that language, properly illustrated; that these meanings should be clearly distinct; and that they should be so arranged, where it can be done, as to demonstrate their mutual dependence. To see what Ainsworth's Dictionary is, in these several particulars, we will look at a few words under the letter D, not selected as differing from the rest of the work, but as affording a fair specimen of its general execution.

Damno. This word has five different meanings assigned to it by Ainsworth. The first is, *to condemn, to dislike;* and the authority for this signification is a passage from the Pharsalia of Lucan. "Miles damnat causamque ducemque." The meaning of "damnat" here is, *greatly disapproves of, regards with strong aversion and displeasure.* This is obviously a figurative use of the word, and is, therefore, most injudiciously placed as its leading signification. That this is not the original, but a derived sense of the word, appears highly probable from the fact, that *damno*, signifying strong disapprobation or dislike, is not found in Cicero, and other writers of the same age; but, with this meaning, it first comes to our knowledge in Lucan, Quintilian, Pliny, and Statius. It is a metaphorical sense of the word, derived from its proper signification, *to condemn or sentence judicially;* that is, to pronounce one *subject to loss or damage, as a penalty.* This is its most common meaning in Cicero, and is plainly that from which all its other meanings are derived. The second meaning assigned to this word by Ainsworth is, *to devote to, or consign over,* a sense, which the word has, and which proceeded obviously from what we have stated to be its leading signification. But, placed as it is after a metaphorical meaning, it is left indistinct and obscure. The third sense of this word, according to Ainsworth, is, *to cast in a suit at law.* For this signification he quotes Tacitus as authority, though it is found in earlier writers, and is closely connected with what appears to be the original sense of the word, and should have been brought near it, that, in this way, its proper force might be easily apprehended. It deserves to be remarked here, that what Forcellini with obvious correctness assigns to this verb as its leading sense, is not even mentioned by Ainsworth. The nearest he approaches to it, is in the signification *to cast in a suit at law*, "sub judice damnare," that is, *to procure the condemnation of some one;* but *to condemn judicially* by

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the direct action of the judge, is a meaning which he has not ascribed to *damno*. Other plain objections lie against the explication of this word, as it stands in Ainsworth. But we pass to

Damnum. The different significations of this word are very imperfectly exhibited. Its meaning as a *penalty*, and a *confiscation of property*, is not mentioned.

Daps. Ainsworth makes the leading signification of this word, *a feast upon a sacrifice*. Forcellini, with apparent reason, has given this order of its meanings, *food*, *a feast*, *a banquet*, *food offered to the gods*, *an offering*, &c.

Decerno. The first meaning of this word, according to Ainsworth, is *to discern by the eye*. *Cernere* with *oculis* expressed, or necessarily implied, signifies *to distinguish clearly by the sight*, though Ainsworth has not marked this use of the word. That *decernere* in its proper sense, has any reference to the eye, does not appear from the example which Ainsworth has adduced. His authority is from a fragment of the Amphitruo of Plautus. "Qui nequeas nostrorum uter sit Amphitruo decernere." But, "decernere" means here not to distinguish by the sight only, but to determine in any way. This appears clearly by reference to the circumstances of Jupiter and Amphitruo in the play, to whom this language applies; and this is the explanation given of the passage by Forcellini.

Decerto. To this word Ainsworth has assigned two meanings. 1st, *to contend*, *to strive*, *to dispute*, and, 2d, *to try it out by words or blows*. Here there appears to be a distinction without a difference. For the second meaning the authority of Statius is quoted. "Agmina bello decertare putes." To say nothing here of the impropriety of selecting Statius, when examples in point in earlier writers are so numerous, the passage cited may answer to show the use of the word where *blows* are concerned, but fails as to *words*. If the connexion of "bello" with "decertare" is a sufficient reason for ascribing a new meaning to the word, then several other significations should have been added, on account of adjuncts, which are now passed over in silence.

Decido. The first meaning of this verb in its active sense, according to Ainsworth, is, *to cut out*; and his proof is a passage of Plautus, "Decide mihi collum." But Forcellini remarks more correctly of this verb, "De iis fere dicitur,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

quæ si abscindantur deorsum cadunt." The meaning is, *to cut from, or off.* This is clear from the passage in Plautus, to which reference is made.

> "Decide collum, si falsum 'st, uti loquor;
> Vel, ut scias me amare, cape cultrum, seca
> Digitum vel aurem, vel tu nasum vel labrum;" etc.

The interchange of the verb "seco" with "decido" makes the meaning clear. The second meaning of this verb, in Ainsworth, is, *to determine, to conclude;* and the third meaning, *to decide a business*, without any apparent distinction, and the authorities adduced show that there is none.

We find very frequently in Ainsworth, a difference of meaning assigned to a word, where the only distinction is, that the word is found in some new connexion, but expressing the same general ideas. Thus,

Defugio. The first sense given to this verb is *to shun, or avoid*, and the second, *to refuse to accept of.* But, "aditum eorum sermonemque defugiunt," which is quoted from Cæsar, as an example of the first use, and "administrationem reipublicæ defugere," from the same author, as an example of the second, show no variation in the signification of the verb; there is simply a variation in the adjunct. Or, if it should be maintained that there is ground here for a distinction, this verb, on the same principle, should have still a new sense in the phrase "contentiones defugere" of Cicero, and still another in the "assentationem defugere" of Pliny. But all these uses of the word are very properly brought under the same division by Forcellini. The fault now remarked upon is so common in Ainsworth, that to point out more instances of it seems unnecessary. It may be seen on every page, and in the explanation of almost every word, where there is any considerable detail.

Another very great defect in Ainsworth's Dictionary is, that very little information is afforded by it, of the mode in which any one word is connected with others to express various relations. This fault is radical, as will be at once discovered by every student, who shall endeavour to ascertain from this work the extent to which words are combined, to express the same or a different idea. Nor is this of importance alone, as respects settling points of Latinity, but often as to the meaning of a writer. This deficiency in Ainsworth, to which

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

allusion is now made, may be seen in all parts of the work. Thus, to recur to some of the words already brought under review. Under "damno," the student will find no example of the construction of this word with others, to show the cause for which any one is condemned. But in Forcellini he will see, that Cicero, among other modes of expression, has "damnare aliquem sceleris," "quempiam aliquo crimine," "damnari nomine sceleris," "de pecuniis repetundis," and that Ovid uses the phrase "damnare in aliquâ re," and Suetonius, "ob aliquam rem." As to the manner of expressing the punishment to which any one is condemned, nothing can be learned from Ainsworth, except that the dative case is used. But it is equally important to know, that there is authority for saying, "damnare ad opus," *to condemn to hard labor*, "damnare ad metallum," *to condemn to the mines*, &c. These are some of the deficiencies alluded to, which occur under the word "damno."

Decerto. From what Ainsworth has furnished to illustrate the construction of this word, all that could be inferred is, that the phrase "inter se decertare," corresponds to the English, *to contend among themselves*, and "bello decertare," *to contend in war*. But the student wishes to know, how the place of contention is connected with the verb, and will find in Forcellini the combination, "in suis finibus decertare." He will likewise see, that to contend *against*, is "decertare contra vim"; to contend *for* or *concerning*, is, "decertare de imperio"; to contend *with*, that is, *against* some one, "decertare cum aliquo," "cum duobus ducibus"; and that to contend with an instrument is exemplified by "armis decertare." Deficiencies of this kind may be found in Ainsworth, by opening the book anywhere at random. For example,

Introitus. Here, "introitus portûs," *the entrance of the harbour*, and "introitus defensionis," the *entrance on the defence*, illustrate the connexion of this word with others in the genitive case; but the forms, "introitus Smyrnam," "introitus in urbem," equally necessary to be known, are not noticed.

Invictus. Here may be found "invictus a labore," and "corpus ad vulnera invictum," but not "crocodilus contra omnes ictus invicta," quite as important as either of the others.

But a not less radical defect of Ainsworth, as a guide to

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Latinity, is the partial exhibition, which it affords, of the extent to which words are used in connexion with others. We have been speaking of the manner in which words are united in construction; the inquiry now is, in what company words should be found. Here languages greatly vary. The analogies followed in different forms of speech are so diverse, that to infer from one to another, in deciding questions of propriety of expression, is always hazardous, and will generally lead into error. The most ludicrous mistakes in the use of a foreign language, arise from this source. In Latin, "conscendere equum," or, "in equum," is *to mount a horse*; but we find likewise "conscendere æthera," "conscendere montem," and "in montem," "conscendere vitis ramos," "conscendere tribunal," "conscendere navem" and "in navem," "conscendere æquor," &c. Now there is no verb in the English language, which can with propriety be employed in translating all the preceding phrases. In each case, we have the means of a sufficiently exact version, but must make several changes of the verb, as in the English combinations different analogies have been followed from those in the Latin. This is a part of every language not vernacular to the student, very difficult to be made familiar. The student is perpetually liable to be drawn away by the application of some word in his own language, which is entirely discordant with the usage of the language which he is learning. Among the means of overcoming this difficulty, there is none more effectual, than a full and correct dictionary. To this there should be a constant reference; the various connexions of words should be traced, the extent of their applications ascertained; and frequent and careful reading will familiarize the whole.

That the Dictionary of Ainsworth is entirely inadequate as a guide to the student in this part of the Latin language, will be manifest on a slight examination. If we recur to the word "conscendere," in Ainsworth, several of the uses above noted will not be found. He has not inserted "conscendere æthera," "vitis ramos," or "æquor," neither of which could be shown with certainty to be correct, from any analogy furnished by the phrases actually quoted. The same deficiency will be found on every page of the work. Thus, to look at one more word,

Dejicere. The following are important applications of this

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

verb, which are omitted by Ainsworth. "Dejicere se per munitiones" (Cic.), *to rush violently through*, &c. "Præsidium Claternâ dejecit Hirtius" (Cæs.), *dislodged*, *drove out a garrison*. It is applied likewise to *ships driven by the wind*, "naves ad inferiorem partem insulæ dejicerentur" (Cæs.); to the *casting of lots*, "dejicere sortes" (Cæs.); to *riding rapidly* from higher to lower ground, "dicto prope citius equum in viam Claudius dejecit" (Liv.); to *sacrificing* of victims, "Thetidi juvencam dejicit" (Val. Max.); to *killing*, "Catillus Iolam dejicit" (Virg.); to *turning aside* the eyes, "pueri oculos de isto nunquam dejicere" (Cic.); to *warding off*, "verbera depulsurum, cruciatumque a corpore dejecturum arbitrabatur" (Cic.); to *prevailing upon one to give up* an opinion, "aliquem de sententiâ dejicere" (Cic.). It is unnecessary to add more instances here, as it must be plain, that Ainsworth has failed to give even a tolerable view of the use and meaning of this word.

If the reader should wish to examine Ainsworth further in this part of his work, let him look at the verb *delabor*, and see whether any thing there adduced sufficiently authorizes "flumen delabens Etruscum in mare" (Hor.); "delabi in insidias" (Aur. Vict.); "delabi in morbum" (Cic.); "delabi in suspiciones" (Cic.); "delabi in sermonem" (Cic.); "delabi ad æquitatem" (Cic.), &c. He can look likewise at the verb *deleo*, and apply any thing which he shall find, to such phrases as these, "delere omnem improbitatem" (Cic.); "delere religionem" (Cic.); "delere omne bellum" (Cor. Nep.); and at the verb *depello*, and at these examples of its use, "famem sitimque depellere" (Cic.); "nubila cœlo depellere" (Tibull.); "depellere servitutem a civibus" (Cic.); "magnâ spe depellere" (Liv.); "depelli sententiâ" (Cic.), and many others.

This want in Ainsworth of a full exhibition of the actual use of words in connexion with others, deserves particularly to be noticed in cases, where a word has been transferred to our own language with little variation. In all such instances, the student, by following the analogies of his own language, is peculiarly exposed to mistakes. Examples of this kind are very frequent. "Terras devorant aquæ" (Plin.). For "devorant," we might use in English, *ingulf*, or *swallow up*, but hardly *devour*; yet Latin use sanctions "devorant." The same author says, "terra devoravit Cybotum, altissimum montem, cum oppido Curite." Here, again, English usage would

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

condemn the word *devour*, and the student needs to see an example of this kind, to assure him that it is authorized in Latin. The verb "impingere" has numerous acceptations which our English word *impinge* has not, many of which are not noticed by Ainsworth. Plautus says, "pugnum in os impingere," "impingere alicui beneficium," "impingere suavium alicui." Our word *inculcate*, is a poor index to the uses of the Latin "inculco." Among other important omissions by Ainsworth, is the use of this word by Cicero, "verba Græca inculcantes." The Latin verb "infligere," also, has uses not analogous to *inflict* in English, which are not mentioned by Ainsworth, as "navis inflicta vadis" (Virg.); "usuras infligere" (Pandect.). The same defect is in all parts of the volume.

In all languages, many words have what is called an absolute sense. A word, from being often connected with another, when the discourse is about a particular subject, comes finally to convey the idea intended alone; or the word at first associated with it is so easily understood, that it is omitted without inconvenience. We say of a man, who has failed to pay his debts, or to continue his mercantile business for want of means, that he has *failed*. This word is said to be used in an absolute sense. A dictionary of a foreign language, which does not furnish a full list of such words, — and they are numerous in all forms of speech, — is deficient in an essential point. There are numerous cases of this use of words in the Latin language, which are not noted in Ainsworth's Dictionary. Thus, that "descendere equo" means to *dismount*, we learn from Ainsworth; but we are not told, that "descendere" is used in the same sense, absolutely, that is, without "equo." "Despondere" with "animum," signifies to *lose heart* or *courage*, to *despair*; it is used likewise in the same sense absolutely. Cornelius Nepos employs the expressions "detrahere de famâ alicujus," "de gloriâ cujuspiam"; he says likewise "multum ei detraxit, quod alienæ erat civitatis," where "detraxit" is used in the absolute form. Cæsar uses this language, "ad littora cursum dirigere," *to direct the course to the shore*. Seneca says, "ad Nesida direxi," where the verb is used absolutely; "cursum" or "navem" being omitted. We say likewise in English, he *steered* for some port.

Another fault in Ainsworth is, that he has failed, in many

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

instances, to distinguish properly the metaphorical sense of words. Thus, "in singulos severitas imperatoris destringitur." (Sen.) "Non ego mordaci destrinxi carmine quenquam." (Ov.) The verb "destringere" is used in these instances, figuratively, but is not so marked by Ainsworth. We read in Cicero, "sunt alii plures, fortasse; sed memoriâ meâ dilabuntur." The verb here is not distinguished by Ainsworth, as used in a figurative sense. We find in Nepos, "a fortunâ datam occasionem liberandæ Græciæ dimittere." The metaphorical sense of "dimittere," Ainsworth has not marked. We read in Virgil, "disjice compositam pacem, sere crimina belli," and in Livy, "hæc consilia ducis disjecit"; but here again Ainsworth has failed to distinguish the figurative use of the verb. We might proceed in this way through the volume. It may, indeed, be said, that the departure from the literal sense of the verbs, in the passages above cited, is so easily seen, that to mark it would have been superfluous, and that this whole subject may be properly left to him who consults the dictionary. But difficulties in the signification of words often depend on slight transitions of the sense, and in no case more frequently, than where there is a departure from the literal sense of a word to that which is metaphorical. Hence the necessity, that the metaphorical use of words should be noted.

The Dictionary of Ainsworth is likewise very imperfect, as an exhibition of the grammatical structure of the Latin language. A grammar of any language, especially such as are in the hands of most students, is necessarily limited to general principles, or brief details. It is in the lexicon, that we expect to find unfolded the actual construction of each word, as well in its ordinary use, as in its anomalies. This is more particularly to be expected in a language no longer spoken, and which, like the Latin, is contained in a well-known body of authors. The facts can here be ascertained, and it is in the dictionary that they should be fully exhibited. Ainsworth, compared in this respect with either of the principal Latin lexicographers since his time, particularly with Forcellini and Scheller, will be found extremely imperfect. A reference to a few particulars will establish this point.

Whether words admit "ut," "quod," "quominus," or the accusative with the infinitive after them, the student can hardly recollect, in every instance, from his own reading;

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

his grammar will not satisfy him in all cases; and it is to his dictionary, that he should be able to apply with confidence for the necessary information. For an example, we will turn to the verb "objicio." The proper construction of other verbs after this, is determined at once by reference to Forcellini. Cicero says to Verres, "non tibi objicio *quod* hominem omni argento spoliasti," and in a letter to Atticus, "surgit pulchellus puer; objicit mihi, *me* ad Baias *fuisse*." There are no examples like these in Ainsworth. That the accusative and infinitive is a proper construction after "opinio," may be seen in Ainsworth; that "ut" and the subjunctive, is likewise used, the student must look for proof in some other place. We find in Livy, "parum est *quod* veterrimas provincias meas, Siciliam et Sardiniam, adimis," and, in Pliny, "parum est, *ut* in curiam venias, nisi et convocas." There are no such examples in Ainsworth, to illustrate the use of "parum." "Prohibeo" is followed by "ne," "quominus," "quin," and by the accusative and infinitive, but in Ainsworth there are no authorities. "Propono" is followed by "ut" and the subjunctive, and by the accusative and infinitive, but this does not appear in Ainsworth. It should be added here, that Forcellini seems not to have aimed at perfection in this part of his work. Occasional omissions may be found, which succeeding editors have not supplied.

Another part of Latin construction, which Ainsworth has failed to illustrate sufficiently, is the admission of the infinitive after verbs and some other words. The grammars, at least most of them, do not furnish in all cases the requisite information; and the resource of the student should be his dictionary. Thus, whether "imbibo" admits an infinitive after it, cannot be determined from Ainsworth. In Forcellini, we have the following quotation from Cæsar. "Quod si facere noluerit, atque imbiberit ejusmodi rationibus illum ad suas conditiones *perducere*." The infinitive also follows "dignor," both in prose writers and poets, but it does not appear from Ainsworth. This defect pervades the whole work.

Ainsworth's Dictionary also is very unsatisfactory in the account which it contains of the particles. Forcellini, though very full in this part of his work, is less complete than the student will sometimes desire; to the English edition, therefore, of this dictionary, the valuable treatise of Tursellin has been properly added.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

But the editor of the stereotype edition of Ainsworth says; "It is in the table of proper names, that our improvements have been most numerous and important." He points out various errors in this table, as at first composed, and speaks of the "unremitting vigilance, that will be found to have been exerted," in reviewing this part of the work.

Some reference to this table, therefore, in its improved state, will afford a fair criterion of the value of this editor's labors. He professes to have struck out much, which in the original edition was superfluous and unnecessary. "We saw no reason," he says, "why our index should include a register of Actæon's hounds, or Pluto's horses; of the victims of the epic heroes, or of the nymphs in the train of Cyrene." The obvious conclusion from this statement is, that the names here referred to are erased. Yet of Actæon's hounds, the names of eight or nine are retained; and it does not at once appear, why the rest of the pack are excluded. A part, as Melampus, *Blackfoot;* Leucon, *White;* Aello, *Tempest,* have been expunged; while others, as Dorceus, *Quicksight;* Oribasus, *Ranger;* Asbolus, *Blackshag,* are allowed to retain their places, without any reason assigned for this distinction. Pluto's horses, Orphnæus, Æthon, Nycteus, and Alastor, hold their places in the last edition as in the first. Cyrene's attendant nymphs have not disappeared, nor have Diana's been removed from their former station, against whose right, however, to be enrolled in this vocabulary, the editor does not object; though a rule, which would exclude the retinue of one of these goddesses, should seem to bear equally hard on that of the other.

As to the victims of the epic heroes, Theron, we are told, in the last as in the first edition, "was a stout Latin slain by Æneas." Alcanor, who was engaged in the same contest in which Theron was killed, and had the honor of being wounded by Æneas, is inserted in the register; but all the information given respecting him, is in these words; "a man's name." "Telon," we are told, was "the son of Œbalus," and Virgil is quoted as authority for the fact; but Virgil says, that Œbalus was the son of Telon, and this is the statement in the edition of 1736. Of Œbalus we find nothing, though a more important personage than his father; and a king of Sparta of the same name is passed over, who, as being the grandfather of Castor, Pollux, Clytemnestra, and Helen, might

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

seem to have some claim to notice. It is manifest, that this part of the dictionary was at first prepared on no uniform principle, and with little care, and that it has been since, in a small degree, if at all, improved.

The biographical and historical part of this index, we are given to understand, has received important improvements; yet errors in the account of so well known an individual as Cicero have remained undisturbed from 1736 to the present time. Of Cicero it is said, that "his first action in public life, was his defence of Sex. Roscius against a prosecution conducted by one of Sylla's creatures." If by "action in public life," is meant his appearance as an advocate, his defence of Sex. Roscius cannot be considered the first. Before this, he defended Publius Quintius, and not improbably was engaged in other civil suits. It is added, "the freedom of his remarks was so displeasing to the dictator, that he was obliged to leave Rome, and travel into the provinces of Greece and Asia." But Cicero continued in Rome a year after his defence of Roscius, and took part in another cause, not less displeasing to the dictator. It is said, likewise, that Cicero, on his return from Asia, where he had studied at Rhodes, under Molon, "was made ædile, and in that office impeached Verres for misgovernment in Sicily." It would seem to be intimated here, that Cicero undertook this impeachment in the character of ædile; whereas the business of an ædile had no connexion whatever with such a prosecution as this against Verres. But the fact was, that Cicero, when he impeached Verres, was not ædile. He had been elected to that office, but did not enter on its duties till the business of the prosecution was completed.

Attempts to correct mistakes in the original edition are not always successful. Thus in the edition of 1736, Dio Cassius is said to have been "a Greek historian, *cujus opera hodie extant.*" In the last edition it stands, "a Greek historian, who wrote a Roman history from the *foundation* in *eight* books, of which the beginning and end are lost." The question might be raised here,—Which account is the most erroneous?

The editor says, "we would particularly solicit the reader to glance at the articles Claudius, Fabius, or Metellus." If the reader will do this, he will find no mention of Appius Claudius Regillensis, the founder of the Claudian family, nor

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of his two sons, all of whom make a distinguished figure in the Roman annals. Appius Claudius, the decemvir, is said "to have died under impeachment." A more exact statement would have been, that he killed himself. Of more than seventy Fabii, who are celebrated in Roman story, nine only are mentioned; and there are no obvious reasons, why some are admitted, and others excluded. The first of the name of Metellus mentioned in this index, is L. Cæcilius Metellus, who was frightened by Scipio Africanus from his design of quitting Italy after the battle of Cannæ. But no mention is made of another L. Cæcilius Metellus, who gained a great victory over the Carthaginians in Sicily, was honored with a splendid triumph, and who received afterwards an uncommon mark of public favor, for his zeal and intrepidity in saving the Palladium from the conflagration of the temple of Vesta.

These are specimens of the errors in this part of Ainsworth's Dictionary, from which an opinion can be formed of the little care bestowed on its original compilation, and the slight attention with which it has been revised in the successive editions. Its faults, indeed, are so numerous, that the student can place little or no reliance on its statements. Whoever makes it his sole dependence in the mythology and history which it comprises, is constantly liable to be led into great, and often very ludicrous mistakes. But, notwithstanding the imperfection of this dictionary in every part of it, its comparative value, at the time of its first appearance, was by no means small; and, considering the state of lexicography at that period, there is no reason to wonder, that its use was widely extended.

It is now, however, in a good measure obsolete; and a Latin dictionary founded on more recent investigations and improvements has been a long time greatly needed; such an one, as from its size and price could be placed within the reach of common students. As nothing of this kind had been attempted, which at all answered the public necessities, the work which is named at the head of this article was projected. It was the design of the editor to prepare a Latin Lexicon of moderate extent, which should combine, as far as possible, the peculiar excellences of Forcellini, Scheller, and Luenemann.

The limits of this work of Mr. Leverett necessarily exclude numerous authorities, which are cited in the larger dictionaries, and those which are retained are given in an abridged form;

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

yet by a judicious selection and cautious reduction, the passages furnished from the Latin classics clearly establish, in most instances, if not all, the several meanings assigned to the words. For more full exhibitions of different forms of expression and construction, the student, from the necessity of the case, must recur to the original works. But such recurrence will ordinarily be had only by the more advanced scholar. The common reading of the Roman writers will rarely require it. When the larger lexicons are consulted, this advantage will be found from the previous use of the work under review, that it has led into no important error. The student, as he proceeds beyond this compilation, will find that he has begun the Latin language on a correct plan, and that he has nothing to unlearn. The only or principal change, in the use of additional means, will be perceived in the more minute survey which he can take of the ground occupied.

For more full satisfaction, as to the general character of this lexicon of Mr. Leverett, the reader can consult it under the several words to which reference is made in our remarks on Ainsworth. What he will find in these cases, may be safely put down as true of the work at large. There is one part only of the work, of which we would express a more qualified approbation. The editor remarks, that "in the arrangement of the meanings of words, Scheller and Luenemann have generally been more closely followed than Forcellini. They possess a manifest advantage, in a work of this kind and size, in bringing the phrases and idioms, which are given under a word, each into the place which its signification points out, and in incorporating the participles with the verbs to which they belong." — That there are advantages in this course, in some respects, is not denied; but in a few instances of the "arrangement of the meanings," we should have preferred Forcellini as a model. Two examples will show what we intend, and whether there is any foundation for the opinion now expressed. The leading meaning of *causa* according to Forcellini, is, *that which produces an effect*. According to Scheller, it is a *lawsuit*, a *judicial process*, and in this arrangement he is followed by Leverett. Now to us it appears much more probable, that *causa*, from signifying *that from which any thing proceeds*, came to denote the *ground* or *reason* of a controversy, and hence was employed to indicate the controversy itself, that is, a *litigation*, than that the contrary process took place.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Forcellini assigns to *mos*, as its first meaning, *custom*, *usage*, *manner*, and hence figuratively, one's *humor* or *will*. Scheller, and in this he is followed by Leverett, makes *the will*, *one's humor*, the leading signification of this word, and derives the sense, *manner*, *custom*, *usage*, from this; which seems very much like assigning *humor*, as its original meaning, to the word *way*, because in reference to some peculiarities of disposition in an individual, we often use the language, "it is his or her *way*." But all this is left to the judgment of the reader. These errors, if they be such, are few in number, and are not likely to lead to any practical mistake.

As respects ancient geography, mythology, and names connected with the fabulous and heroic ages, the lexicon under review agrees generally, if not always, with Forcellini. The most important theological words introduced into the Latin language by the spread of Christianity through the Roman empire, especially such words of this class as are found in the writings of Tertullian, Arnobius, and some of the early Christian poets, are inserted in this dictionary. A few theological words occur in Ainsworth, which are not in Forcellini.

From a pretty full examination, therefore, of this work, we have no hesitation in congratulating the public on its appearance. One of the most considerable obstacles to an improved course of instruction in the Latin language, in this country, is removed; and if the beneficial effects of this lexicon are not soon visible, the cause must be sought, not in the work itself, but in the imperfect and faulty use which is made of it. Heretofore, when attempts have been made to conduct the student to a more thorough knowledge of words in this language, and especially of idioms and construction, reference was made to works to which he had no ready access; and discouragement, or at least a slow and unsatisfactory progress, was the consequence. Something far better in this department of study may now be reasonably anticipated.

Few laborers in the field of literature are more deserving of encouragement and commendation than lexicographers. Nor is their occupation, as sometimes represented, one of mere drudgery. The labor, indeed, of preparing a good dictionary in any language, is great, but it is a labor combined with numerous sources of mental gratification. It should ever be remembered, that Milton, while suffering the evils of blindness, cheered his solitude by collecting materials for a Latin diction-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ary; and the three folio volumes of authorities, to which we have before alluded, are records of the recreations and pastime of a mind, occupied in the splendid creations of "Paradise Lost."

We cannot close this article without paying a tribute of respect to the character of the late Mr. Leverett. By his lamented death, his friends and the public have sustained no common calamity. His eminent abilities as a teacher, and his attainments in classical scholarship, were well known and highly appreciated in this community. His learning was profound and accurate, his taste was correct and severe. He was indefatigable in labor, zealous in acquiring and skilful in communicating knowledge, and scrupulously exact in enforcing discipline. Whilst at the head of the Boston Latin School, he more than sustained the already high reputation of that noble institution; and when, a few years before his death, he withdrew from that honorable station to establish a private classical school, he was followed by public confidence and favor, and his school rose at once to the highest rank in popular esteem. To the exhausting labor of instruction, he added the gigantic task of preparing his dictionary; a task which he had just completed, when, in the prime of life, and in the vigor of his powers, he was struck down by the hand of death. Mr. Leverett's high intellectual endowments, and uncommon purity of moral character, were graced by the charm of singularly modest and unassuming manners, which had won for him the cordial attachment of a large circle of literary friends. His private virtues they alone can fully estimate; but of his learning and capacity for labor, "exegit monumentum ære perennius."

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ART. V. — 1. *An Historical Account of the Circumnavigation of the Globe and of the Progress of Discovery in the Pacific Ocean, from the Voyage of Magellan to the Death of Cook.* Illustrated by numerous Engravings. New York. Harper & Brothers. 1837. 18mo. pp. 366.

2. *Address on the Subject of a Surveying and Exploring Expedition to the Pacific Ocean and South Seas; Delivered in the Hall of Representatives, on the Evening of April 3d*, 1836. By J. N. REYNOLDS. With Correspondence and Documents. New York. Published by Harper & Brothers. 1836. 8vo. pp. 300.

EVER since its discovery, — that is, for a little more than three hundred years, — the vast tract of ocean, commonly though not very appropriately known as the "South Seas," has been, at intervals, and from different reasons, a subject of engrossing interest with all the chief maritime nations of the world. The announcement, in 1513, of its discovery by Vasco Nunez de Balboa, a native of Spain, gave rise, in that kingdom, to many extravagant hopes; among others, that of finding the long-sought Golden Land, where the common utensils were formed of the precious metals, or at least, of reaching, by a short passage, those Indies from which Portugal was deriving so vast a revenue. The former of these expectations was partially realized in the discovery of Peru; but on the other hand, the voyage of Magellan, however important in some of its consequences, served then only to confirm the superiority of the usual route by the Cape of Good Hope. The attempt, however, was several times renewed, not only by the two great rival nations, but also by the growing navy of Holland; and it was not till after repeated trials had resulted in continued disappointments, that the hope of a passage was finally relinquished, and the enthusiasm, thereby excited, died away.

England was, at this time, rapidly rising in importance as a naval power, and it is rather remarkable that the first appearance of her sailors on a scene in which they have since won so many peaceful honors, was under the inauspicious guise of Buccaneers; a set of desperadoes, of whose qualities the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

character of Bertram Risingham in "Rokeby," offers a very striking representation.

> "Friend to the sea, and foeman sworn
> To all that on her waves are borne,—
> * * * * *
> Inured to danger's direst form,
> Tornado, earthquake, flood, and storm,
> Death had he seen by sudden blow,
> By wasting plague, by tortures slow,
> By mine or breach, by steel or ball,
> Knew all his shapes and scorned them all."

Brutal, pitiless, licentious, and quarrelsome, there was yet something in their adventurous life, and daring exploits, calculated to captivate the imagination in that rude age. And, if we add to this the opportunity of acquiring in little time great and available wealth, we shall easily conceive the spell which induced many of the more respectable class to embark in this perilous course, and led the government itself to more than sanction it, in the memorable expedition of Anson. The pursuit of the Buccaneer was regarded then, very much as that of privateering some twenty years ago; and fell into disesteem as soon as the proper objects and mode of warfare were better understood.

The next source of excitement, to which this ocean, so inaptly called Pacific, gave rise, may be found in the notion of an extensive Austral continent, in which the known parts of New Holland, New Zealand, and several fictitious southern discoveries, were supposed to be included. The consequence was the famous South Sea Bubble, by the swelling of which so many were suddenly elevated to a specious but hollow prosperity, only to be precipitated, at its bursting, into headlong and disastrous ruin. But however lamentable may have been the immediate consequences of this speculation, we can hardly regret it, when we reflect that its final results were the voyages of Wallis, Carteret, and Cook, and the complete resolution of those problems which had puzzled the world for centuries. No maritime expedition since the days of Columbus and Magellan, excited so intense an interest as those of the last-named navigator; the narratives of his successive voyages were read with an eagerness, resembling that with which the fictions of Scott were received twenty years after. The novel and

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

adventurous routes pursued, and the discoveries reported, were enough to arouse curiosity, which the description of the new-found islands and their inhabitants only allayed by awaking the more grateful sensations of admiration and delight. "In few regions of the earth," says the author of the first work at the head of this article, "does Nature present a more fascinating aspect, or lavish her gifts with more bountiful profusion. Favored by mild and serene skies, the fertile soil of these insular territories produces a most luxuriant vegetation, which, with its many rich and varied hues, clothes the whole land, from the margin of the sea to the summits of the loftiest mountains. As the voyager sails along their picturesque shores, he is refreshed by perfumes borne on the breeze, from woods which, at the same time, display the bud, the blossom, and the mature fruit."

There was something too, in the character of the South Sea islander, accordant with the climate and nature of his country. He appeared, like his soil, to be rather uncultivated than savage, and the traits which might have produced an unfavorable impression, were lost in the contemplation of his nobler or more gentle qualities; the more pleasing as neither the intercourse with the East Indians, nor yet with the natives of America, had prepared the civilized world for an acquaintance with so engaging a race of barbarians. Even Humboldt, with all his devotion to the cause of the Western Aborigines, is driven to confess, that, beside the delightful descriptions of these navigators, "the pictures which portray the solemn gravity of the inhabitants of the Missouri or the Maranon possess little attraction."

It is a proof of the interest excited by these relations, that hardly a year has passed since the days of Cook, without producing narratives of discovery and adventure in the Pacific, of all kinds, from the brief and simple story of the shipwrecked sailor, to the ponderous quarto of a national expedition; all of which have met an eager reception. To confirm this assertion, we need only mention the names of La Pérouse, Dentrecasteaux, Vancouver, Portlock, Flinders, Campbell, Beechy, Delano, Ellis, Stewart, Morrell, who with many others have made us acquainted with the minutest features which distinguish the larger groups of the Polynesian Islands.

With all this interest, however, it is observable, that little is known or thought of the voyagers who intervened between

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Cook and Magellan; an ignorance much to be regretted, since their narratives and impressions, though sometimes obscure and erroneous, have nevertheless that originality and freshness, which only those of discoverers can possess. Most that they see is not merely new, but unexpected, and is remembered and described with all that accuracy and vividness with which novel and striking objects are usually noted. The navigators themselves are interesting to us, as belonging to another age and country, and their characters and actions are in entertaining contrast with those of their new acquaintances. Moreover, we are fain to confess a foolish liking for the antique etchings with which their descriptions are illustrated. We know not how it may be with virtuosi, but we own that the most exquisite productions of modern draftsmen, however correct and artist-like, have not been able to give us so clear a conception of these regions, or indeed of any other, as those rough, sailor-like sketches, particularly of the Dutch navigators, — drawings faithful notwithstanding their contempt of perspective, and plain in spite of a thousand absurdities; — as where fishes protrude their noses higher than the mainmast, and quadrupeds stride composedly over navigable rivers, — which, partaking of the general character, now run wildly up a mountain, and anon take a *détour* to avoid a protruding oyster. In spite, or rather in consequence of this simplicity, the pictures frequently present us with what the over-minute productions of later artists as often lose; namely, those peculiarities of scenery which strike at first view, and are remembered for ever.

A chief cause, undoubtedly, of the ignorance on this point, is the scarcity of the original narratives, and the want of any cheap and convenient collection or abridgment. Burney's Chronological History, though excellent in most respects, is too unwieldy as well as expensive. A reprint, in a more compact form (but without omission) would, we are persuaded, not be an unprofitable speculation for some of our large publishing houses. Its place is not supplied by the work which heads this article, though in itself one of considerable merit. The author has been careful and laborious in his researches, and his opinions on contested points are always shrewd and frequently decisive. His style is easy and his observations generally candid and sensible; and thus far our commendation may be unqualified. The great defect of the book, is the entire want of maps and outlines, for showing the different routes

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of the navigators, and the gradual progress of discovery. Without these, the work, from its compressed character, appears little better than a confused collection of names and dates, conveying a very imperfect idea to the reader, while the remarks on various geographical difficulties become quite unintelligible. A less crowded and more attractive appearance might have been given, by throwing the numerous unimportant expeditions into a kind of chronological index, and thus leaving room for a more extended account of the remarkable voyages, those, for instance, of Tasman, Mendana, Schouten, &c. As it is, the volume will be chiefly valuable as a work of reference to such as have already considerable acquaintance with the subject; and, in this respect, its accuracy and conciseness are its best claims to attention.

A few remarks on the general course of enterprise and discovery in the South Seas may not be uninteresting. The reflection which occurs most frequently in reading Admiral Burney's work, and still more the present volume, is the remarkable similarity of most of the voyages, both in their routes and in their final results. Sailors, we have read, have a rude kind of play (called "follow my leader"), the sport of which lies in the obligation of every man in a file to imitate, in every respect, however disagreeable, the example of the foremost. It would almost seem as if the circumnavigators, from the time of Magellan to Cook, had resolved to turn this game into sober practice; otherwise, it is singular that no consideration of gain, no desire of fame, no fondness for adventure should induce these mariners to deviate from the circuitous and inconvenient track of the first explorer. Their usual practice was, after doubling the Cape, to proceed northward along the coast of South America, until they reached the isthmus of Panama, or the Californian peninsula; then, turning westward, they crossed the ocean to the Marian Isles, (discovered by Magellan,) leaving the Sandwich group far to the right or left, according to the starting point preferred. By this course, it will be seen that they managed ingeniously to avoid every track which might have led to discoveries, and so have antedated the successes of Cook.

But the similarity did not end here. It is well known, that Magellan perished in a contest with the natives of the Philippines, and that, between mutinies on board and quarrels with the East Indian Islanders, only one of his vessels, with a small

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

part of her original crew, returned to Spain. In humble imitation, hardly an expedition of any consequence sailed from Europe, for a century afterwards, of which the greater part was not lost by tempests, wars, or rebellions, before its return; and it was esteemed a remarkable piece of good fortune, if the original commander survived to revisit his native shores. Loyasa, Del Cano, Saavedra, Villalobos, Le Maire, Mendana are but a few of the captains who acquired a dismal celebrity by perishing in these ill-conducted expeditions.

It is also observable that even the small number, who, like Schouten and Mendana, ventured to leave the common track, and were fortunate enough to extend the limits of the known world, did not take the pains to assure themselves of the benefits of their discoveries, by determining their position with accuracy. Mendana was unable to return to the Solomon Islands, which he had seen but a few years before, having located them about *fifty degrees* east of their real position, a place which they hold on most of the charts of the sixteenth century; while near them, the Hond or Hound Island of Schouten (one of the multitude of specks forming what is now called the dangerous Archipelago), swells out into a space of some thousand square miles, the greater part of which is occupied, after the fashion of those maps, by a stupendous dog! The Arrowsmiths and D'Anvilles of those primitive times had a very curious and admirable receipt for reconciling all discrepancies in the reckonings of the navigators; it was by simply increasing or diminishing the width of the South American peninsula to correspond with the calculated distances of the newfound islands, — the pliable continent taking upon itself, like the "cloud" of Polonius, now the tenuity of a weasel, and again, with more correctness, the rotundity of a whale.

Captain Cook has been termed by the circumnavigator D'Urville, "the author of the true geography of the Pacific." The compiler of the volume now under review evidently considers him entitled to stand in the first rank of discoverers. We are compelled reluctantly to dissent somewhat from this opinion. It should be recollected, that the discoveries of Columbus and Magellan were due wholly to their own efforts; their sagacity formed the plans, which their zeal and judgment enabled them to carry into effect. On the contrary, in every one of his voyages, Cook had not only his means already provided, but instructions drawn out comprising his whole scheme

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of operations; and his most important discoveries were merely the accidental result of following the plans of others. We must place him therefore at a great distance behind the navigators, who, living in a rude and half-civilized age, were capable of conceiving and executing projects whose difficulties were as great as their results were important. There still, however, remains to Captain Cook the praise of having founded a new era in navigation. The number and extent of his voyages, the *wonderful accuracy of his surveys and descriptions*, his general humanity in his intercourse with the savages, and the salutary alterations which he introduced in the diet and regulations of seamen, give him a right to our highest respect and admiration. He set the example of not confining himself to any former track, traversing the ocean in every direction, and visiting most of the important groups of islands. Unluckily his example, like that of Magellan, has been too closely followed by succeeding voyagers. His instructions led him to pay most attention to those clusters in the East and South Pacific, commonly included in the name of Polynesia, viz. the Society, Sandwich, and Friendly Islands, with New Zealand; all of which are inhabited by the same race of people, speaking nearly the same language. These groups he described and surveyed in such a manner as, one would have thought, must leave little for succeeding navigators to perform. Yet it is a singular fact, that these very clusters have been selected by nearly all his successors as the chief objects of attention; while the islands, which he did *not* visit, remain almost as much unknown at the present day. What information, for instance, or what accurate chart have we, of the important Fejee group, of the Navigators, of many parts of the great Caroline cluster, or of the vast country of Papua, and the Louisiade Archipelago? And yet, if any considerations, either of interest or humanity, could have influenced the course of these expeditions, these islands should long since have been as familiarly known as any of the more Eastern groups.

It will be said, that the commanders had other objects than that of wandering over the South Seas, to survey and map out its islands, which is very true. But so also, at least in two of his voyages, had Cook, who never seemed to think himself thereby exonerated from the duty of consulting the interests of commerce and humanity, as far as was consistent with his chief design. Not to mention instances which might ap-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pear invidious, we find the Russian Lisiansky spending several days at the Marquesan Islands, without seeming to imagine that an accurate chart of them would be desirable ; and Kotzebue sails at night directly between two wholly unknown groups of the Ralick chain, but does not think proper to spend any time in examining them ; and these commanders are not singular in their conduct. Doubtless they can offer good reasons for their proceedings ; but it is equally certain that Cook, in such cases, could *not*. He was never ingenious enough to find excuses for depriving his discoveries of half their value, by neglecting to give the world a correct and complete description of them. On quitting New Caledonia we find him expressing his regret at being compelled, "*for the first time*, to leave a coast he had discovered, before it was fully explored."

Unfortunately, the reasons of this backwardness are, in many cases, too apparent. It is easy to conceive how much less agreeable it must be, to spend the time in wearisome labors among reefs and sandbanks or in dealing with the fierce and disgusting negroes of Oceanica, than to roam among the pleasant groups inhabited by the engaging Polynesian race, — enjoying in some the charms of a delightful climate, and of a soil gratifying every sense with its productions ; in others, the attractions of civilized society, and the hospitality of missionaries, repaid afterward by abuse and misrepresentation. Those who have read the voyages of Byron in the Blonde, of Kotzebue, and Wendt, (by Meyen,) will understand that we do not make these remarks without warrant.

There is another consideration forced upon the mind in perusing all the relations of navigators, whether ancient or modern. We refer to their great and culpable carelessness with regard to the small islands, reefs, and shoals, which they happen to meet in their course. Every reader of voyages knows how such an event is frequently described. Suddenly, when one least expects it, the sailor at the mast-head calls out "*land* ;" universal excitement instantly prevails ; a thousand conjectures are formed of its probable nature and extent, and all eyes are bent towards the quarter where a distant speck appears gradually enlarging to the view. On nearer approach, it proves to be an island of no great size ; the inhabitants, if there be any, rush to the beach with loud exclamations and wild gestures, and the officers reconnoitre them through their glasses. A hasty observation is taken, which determines the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

position within a degree, more or less, and a name is bestowed upon it, such as the affection, loyalty, or self-love of the commander may dictate. These essential formalities having been duly registered, the ship continues her course, and the little spot of earth slowly sinks in the distance. The next information we receive of it, is not seldom from the narrative of some unfortunate seaman, who, trusting too implicitly to the chart, suffers shipwreck on a ledge from which he should be seventy miles distant, and escapes only to drag out a weary life, a captive, or at best, a companion of barbarians. Let those who have tested and proved the best maps of the Pacific, declare the justice or falsity of this delineation.

We have already said, that the South Seas have been, by turns, an object of peculiar attention with all the chief maritime nations of the world. We have shown how the Spaniard, the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the English have successively made it the theatre of their labors, triumphs, and disasters. At present there are none, to whom the Pacific is a source of greater interest than to the inhabitants of the United States. For a considerable time, a revenue constantly increasing has been drawn from this ocean, far exceeding that derived by the first discoverers, when their designs embraced the plunder of two continents. We refer, as will be readily perceived, to the fisheries, which for more than sixty years have been carried on in those seas. Even in their infancy, the vigor and industry, with which they were conducted, called forth the animated encomium of Burke; and at the present day their value to this country is almost incalculable. According to the estimate of Mr. Reynolds, there are now no less than four hundred and sixty sail, amounting to one hundred and seventy-two thousand tons of shipping, or nearly *one tenth of the whole tonnage of the United States*, engaged in these fisheries. This, it will be remembered, is independent of the large amount employed in the commerce connected with these seas; as, for instance, in the sandal-wood and bêche-la-mer trade. If we reflect upon the numbers who derive their entire subsistence from this source, as also upon the amount and variety of necessaries required for the equipment of so vast a fleet, and the indispensable nature of the articles with which it supplies us, we shall become readily sensible that there is no branch of industry of more vital importance to the whole nation.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

When we consider that these fisheries and this commerce are carried on in those parts of the ocean with which we are least acquainted, we shall be little surprised to learn, that frequent losses both of property and life take place; but we may be astonished that with this vast amount of revenue at stake, no efforts have before been made to diminish the number of these losses, by the only sufficient means, viz. a careful and complete examination of the islands, shoals, and reefs from which the danger arises. We learn from the anecdote related by the Honorable C. Cushing, (Address, p. 133,) that other nations have long since remarked the discrepancy between our standing as a maritime people, and our contributions to nautical science.

On this point, however, it is unnecessary to speak further. The liberal scale on which the Exploring Expedition under Commodore Jones, now on the eve of departure, has been fitted out, must exonerate our government from any suspicion of ill-judged economy as the source of its previous apathy. To any one who would acquire information on the subject of this expedition, the manner in which it originated, the interest it has excited, and the circumstances which attended its progress through the Legislature, together with many useful details, concerning the trade and fisheries in the South Seas, and the necessity of a survey, we would recommend the Address of Mr. Reynolds, with the accompanying documents. The information therein contained is the partial result of ten years' laborious researches, and is valuable not only for its extent, but also for the clear and interesting manner in which it is conveyed.

We have no intention of treating the subject at any length; the unexpected and unavoidable delays, which have postponed the departure of the vessels, have given occasion for the public to become fully acquainted with all the important particulars relating to their number, quality, and equipment, as well as the names of the principal officers and other gentlemen selected for the expedition. But we have been surprised to find, that, notwithstanding the general interest felt in the voyage, there are many indistinct and erroneous notions prevalent concerning some of its purposes. A brief recapitulation of its principal objects, as gathered from the most authentic sources, may serve not only to rectify these impressions, but also, if properly made, to indicate to those connected with the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

expedition, how much will be required of them, to answer the expectations of the public.

The first and chief object of the expedition will be, as we understand it, to explore those parts of the South Seas which are at the same time least known, and most important to our commerce, and to survey and note accurately the position and form of every island, rock, and sand-bank, which may prove the source either of danger or advantage; or, in brief, to furnish, as far as is practicable, a complete chart of the Pacific. This is undoubtedly a work, which both for its utility, and the labor required for its accomplishment, may rank with the most extensive and beneficial plans ever conceived. The merit of originating this vast project belongs exclusively, we believe, to our nation; and we trust that the credit of its execution will not devolve upon others. The necessity of this survey is apparent from what we have already said, and is placed in a stronger light by the evidence which Mr. Reynolds has accumulated, showing that there are now in the whole expanse of the ocean, not less than two hundred of these islets,* visited only by whale-ships, many of which are on no chart, and the rest of doubtful location. It is to be hoped that this expedition will not, after the usual fashion, fritter away its time among those groups which are as well known as our own coasts, and perhaps better, — we mean those which Cook, Vancouver, and others have already carefully surveyed, — but will give its chief attention to the less pleasing, but more useful examination of the scattered specks above mentioned, as well as the larger, but equally unknown clusters of Oceanica. There will of course be reasons abundant for visiting the more civilized islands; but we fear that any attempts at exploration among them would not only be useless, but so much time subtracted from more necessary labors.

Another prime object of the voyage, — we do not know if it should not take the precedence of all others, — is the release of those unhappy men who are detained in captivity on these islands. The details which Mr. Reynolds gives on this point are lamentable enough, but they do not disclose by any means all. Seamen who are cast away among the larger groups, particularly those inhabited by the Polynesian race, though of course suffering under all the distress which absence from

* Commodore Downes, who has had excellent opportunities for observation, estimates them at *five hundred*. See his letter, Address, p. 254.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

home and civilized life must produce, have generally little positive cruelty to complain of. It is on the small and scattered islands where shipwrecks are most frequent, that those frightful examples of cruelty occur, of which we sometimes hear. The natives, commonly few in number, are there sunk in the lowest degradation; the social feelings, which are always in some degree excited in large aggregations of men, are in them weakened, if not entirely dormant. No right, but that of the strongest, prevails; and the moral sentiments, with the exception of some dim glimmering of religious feeling, appear to be utterly extinct. The fate of the captive in such hands is of course deplorable. If his life be spared at first, he must expect to endure all that savage ingenuity and insolence can inflict of pain and indignity, and to drag out for years a weary existence, cheered hardly by a hope of escape. For it is, as we have before said, this class of islands, which is least likely to be visited by a vessel of force sufficient to effect their liberation. The few whale-ships who pass near the places of captivity, though generally well disposed to aid them, are unable to do more, than to try the effect of bargain and solicitation; their want of effective force, and their unwillingness to hazard the property of others, prevent them from employing more efficient means. It is to be remembered, that a vessel, lost in manœuvring among these islands for any other purpose than that for which she was fitted out, forfeits her insurance. This circumstance will account also for the fact, that of the reefs and islands discovered by them, few are examined with any accuracy. Otherwise, the debt which geographical science owes to these adventurous and often enlightened mariners would be much greater than it is.

For an example of the sufferings endured among the more barbarous class of natives, we would refer to the narration, by Horace Holden, of the loss of the ship Mentor, of New Bedford, in 1831, off the Pelew Islands, and the subsequent misfortunes of the crew.* The account of their distresses at Lord North's Island surpasses any thing which we could have supposed men capable of enduring. And yet the half of their misery has not been told.

But it is not merely the sufferings of the wretched captives, that we are to consider in this case; most of these have fam-

* For an account of this work, see "N. A. Review," Vol. XLIII. p. 206.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ilies dependent on their exertions, or relatives, whose happiness is wrecked along with them. On this point, we were especially pleased with a remark of Mr. Hamer, of Ohio, in his eloquent speech on the subject. "The rescue of a husband and father," he says, "and his restoration to his family, would be worth half the expense of the expedition; and the remainder would be covered by the redemption of some unfortunate son from his savage masters, and his return to the arms of a widowed mother."

It is in performing this office of humanity, that the importance of the frigate in the expedition will be chiefly manifest. It often happens that the display of power prevents the necessity of directly employing it. It must be remembered that most of the larger islands are densely inhabited by a treacherous and warlike race, who unite to all the craft and cruelty of our own aborigines, a shrewdness and intrepidity which the latter do not possess. The terror of firearms has been much diminished, by familiarity with these once invincible engines. And, as we may learn from the accounts of Crozet and Kotzebue, the natives do not fear to attack, in open day, frigates of the largest class. Nothing but a prompt exhibition of overwhelming force, accompanied with judicious liberality and an evident readiness to reciprocate any friendly feeling, can enable us to maintain our influence over a people of this character. The advantage of establishing amicable relations between them and ourselves is evident; and nothing will more contribute to it, than a proper idea of our immense superiority as well as our good disposition toward them, — the former to be evinced by an imposing display of strength and vigor, and the latter by a plentiful distribution of the kind of presents which to them are wealth. Mr. Stephens, in his recent admirable Travels in the East, informs us, that nothing has done more to make our nation respected in the Levant, than the late visit of the Delaware; what then must be the effect of several vessels, even of a much smaller class, upon the unaccustomed mind of a savage of Oceanica? We may predict the most desirable results, not only to our commerce in general, but also in favor of the unfortunate seamen who may hereafter be shipwrecked on these islands, and who will no longer be regarded as isolated, defenceless castaways, to be insulted and enslaved at will, but as members of a mighty na-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tion, watchful over the interests of all its sons, and ready no less to requite injustice, than to reward kindness.

There is another useful end which will probably be subserved by the expedition; we mention it with some reluctance, but under a sense of the imperious necessity that the subject should be brought clearly before the public. As a class, the mariners engaged in the South Sea trade and fisheries sustain a high reputation for enterprise, intelligence, and good principles. They have been large contributors, not only to our national prosperity, but to some departments of science; and we would be far from wishing to diminish the sense of the obligation we are under to them, on these accounts. But in so numerous a class, there must be and there are many exceptions; more, in fact, than would be at first thought. Though, if we reflect upon the immense restraining power of public opinion, which among large masses encompasses and influences all, like the "universal air," if we consider how much of the propriety of conduct in a community is due to the fear of the law and the restraint of social ties, we shall not be surprised to learn that some, who at home filled their parts respectably and even honorably, should, on reaching a region, where none of these influences are strongly felt, and some not felt at all, give free scope to the passions hitherto shackled, and become almost mates for the savages around them. It is known to those who have made inquiries on this subject, that scenes of cruelty, licentiousness, and extortion are acted in the recesses of this vast sea, the details of which are sometimes too shocking to be repeated. Mutinies are not uncommon, and those accompanied with murder; and tyranny on the part of the captains is too often the cause. Wanton inhumanity towards the natives is the source of many a terrible retribution, which falls sometimes on the heads of the unoffending. Of another class of outrages some idea may be gathered from the circumstance related by Mr. Stewart, (in his "Residence in the Sandwich Islands,") that a party of sailors attacked the house of one of the missionaries and threatened his life, unless he *repealed the seventh commandment.* A letter from Mr. Jones, our Consul at the Sandwich Islands, says; "I have never before seen the importance of having a vessel of war stationed at these islands, for the protection of the whale fishery, so clearly as at the present period. Scarcely has there been one

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of our whalers in the harbour, that has not experienced more or less difficulty. I have at one time had sixty Americans confined in the fort; and hardly a day has passed that I have not been compelled to visit one or more ships to quell a mutiny, or compel, by force, whole crews to do their duty, who had united to work no longer. I should say, too, that there are more than one hundred deserters now on shore from our ships, regular outlaws, ready to embark in any adventure." (*Address*, p. 65, note.)

It is difficult for men in the seclusion of a study, or engaged in the quiet avocations of common life, to measure the degree of criminality incurred by those who, removed from the restraints of civilization, are subjected to the toils, the perils, and the wearing vicissitudes of a nautical existence, exposed to continual excitement, and alternating from the most alluring sensual temptations to the rude trials of an harassing pursuit. But though we may hesitate before censuring, in the severest terms, the excesses of which some are guilty, we cannot doubt the propriety of using every effort for their suppression.

And this, we conceive, may be accomplished by a process as simple as that of introducing fresh air into a receiver, to resuscitate a dying flame. We would, if possible, bring these seas, or at least their visitants, again within the pale of social influence. We would extend over them once more the dominion of that opinion, which, if not the best restraining force, is yet, with most, the mightiest. This could be done by giving them to perceive, that their actions, in the remotest recesses, are not secure from animadversion, and that the law extends its *surveillance* even over the barbarians whom they maltreat. The visit of a ship of war, bringing authority to inquire into cases of misconduct, and to take measures for preventing future irregularities, will without doubt have a most beneficial effect. Consuls, with sufficient salaries, should be appointed at the principal civilized ports in the Pacific, and friendly arrangements entered into with such of the native tribes as possess governments of sufficient stability. Every reasonable provision should be made, not only for redressing grievances, but also for facilitating the labors of the whalemen, and removing those difficulties, which the distance from all regular authorities, and the want of settled rules of intercourse, must create.

It has surprised us not a little, in observing the comments

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

which are made upon this expedition, to find that a singular misapprehension prevails on a certain point. It seems to be imagined by some, that its final destination is to be within the Antarctic Circle, or at least that it is to cruise principally in high Austral latitudes. We have no doubt that the very inappropriate name of "South Seas," as applied to the Pacific, has contributed to this error. Because Nuñes de Balboa, three hundred years ago, standing on the isthmus of Panama, saw a part of the ocean lying to the south, and thus named it under a false impression, we must still continue to the whole the same absurd appellation. As the knowledge of this circumstance seems to be less common than we had thought, we presume that some, recollecting the many voyages of the Dutch and English, in the seventeenth century, toward the *North* Sea, have imagined this enterprise to be designed as the direct converse of those. The impression may have also, in part, arisen from the too great prominence given to a minor object of the voyage. The notion of a *terra australis* seems not even yet wholly renounced. It is argued, that we have good reason to believe that large masses of fixed ice are never found but in the neighbourhood of land; if then, the Antarctic Ocean be really occupied by those immense frozen plains which we suppose, they must be united to a hardly less extensive continent, to which some lucky opening may give access. On the other hand, if these fields of ice are only accumulated around a few scattered rocks, is it not reasonable to conclude, that, at certain seasons, a general break-up takes place, leaving the way clear to the very axis of the earth? The authority, moreover, of Captain Weddell is produced, who, within sixteen degrees of the pole, saw "no fields, and only two or three islands of ice, but innumerable flights of birds." All this is very plausible, and there is certainly presumption enough in its favor, to authorize the trial; but there appears to be no reason (we speak under correction) for giving it much importance as an end of the expedition.

The accomplishment of all the objects which we have named must, of course, devolve principally on the officers of the different vessels; and are certainly sufficient to task to the utmost, the skill and enterprise for which the gentlemen of our navy are distinguished. There is another class of researches of little less importance, the execution of which will be committed to other hands; and on this subject we may speak somewhat more at large.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The comparative obscurity of all the accounts of circumnavigation anterior to Cook, has already been noticed, and can be attributed to nothing, so much as to their entire uselessness for any but the compiler, or the lover of old narratives. The naturalist, the navigator, the linguist, search in vain through their confused pages, for any thing like valuable information. Even in the science of their times they are astonishingly deficient. A very slight acquaintance with astronomy, would have enabled Mendana to find, in his second voyage, the isles discovered in his first. A few words of the language, or descriptions of one or two indigenous plants or animals, would probably have assured to the Spaniards the credit of discovering Otahiti and New Zealand, as early as the sixteenth century. (See the Voyages of *Quiros* and *Fernandez**). As it is, their fame has been almost as evanescent as the foam which followed the track of their vessels through the ocean.

Cook was the first, we believe, who was accompanied by persons devoted solely to scientific researches. On his first voyage, beside Mr. Green, the astronomer, who was engaged to make the observations of the transit of Venus, Mr. Banks, (afterwards Sir Joseph,) attended by Dr. Solander and two draughtsmen, was allowed to go out as a volunteer. He was then a young man of about twenty-four; but the information he acquired not only served to give additional eclat to the voyage, but laid the foundation, for him, of a distinguished reputation. At the next expedition, government, conscious that such a step would be expected by the nation, endeavoured to engage the services of the same gentlemen; but with an inconsistency not surprising, when we remember the character of that ministry (in 1772), compelled them to resign when on the very eve of sailing. The following paragraph, from "The Annual Register" for that year, gives the circumstances of this curious proceeding.

"Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander were not consulted on the choice of the ship; and on their objecting to her want of accommodation for the draughtsmen, &c. as well as her want of room to stow the crew, the Navy Board undertook to give all those conveniences, and patched the same ship with a round-house and square deck; and, without considering whether she could

* Compare them, in this respect, to the Travels of *Chardin*, their contemporary, which are still resorted to by Orientalists, as a source of accurate and interesting knowledge.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

bear it, manned and equipped her for the voyage. Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, &c. examined her a second time; found her convenient, if she could sail, which they doubted, and reported her top-heavy. Their observations were disregarded; but a gale of wind arising laid her on her side, without her having a single sail unreefed, and she could not for some time recover; they ordered out the long-boat to save the crew, when unexpectedly she recovered. Notwithstanding this accident, she was reported good and fit for the voyage, and was ordered to Plymouth. The pilot obeyed these orders, sending word he could not ensure her out of the river. At last it was found that the farce could be carried on no longer, and the reports on which the Navy proceeded were found to be false; expresses were sent along the coast to Deal, &c. to order her into the nearest dock, at Sheerness, if they could overtake her; this was no difficult task; for while the other ships cleared the Downs, she did not make one knot an hour. She was put into dock; they cut off her roundhouse and part of her deck, reduced the cabin, and put her in the same unfit situation she was in, when first objected to; and then the question was politely put to Mr. Banks, 'Take this or none.' Mr. Banks has laid out several thousand pounds for instruments, &c. preparatory for the voyage; Mr. Zoffani (a well-known painter) near one thousand pounds for necessaries, and the other gentlemen, very considerable sums on that account."

We have introduced this extract, partly to display the inefficient and vacillating character of that ministry, which rendered itself infamous during our revolution, and partly to enable the reader to contrast the treatment of those gentlemen with the liberality and attention which those engaged in scientific researches experience at the present day, from every European, and we are happy to add, American government. Since the time of Cook, no expedition of discovery of any importance has sailed without having on board one or more persons, whose sole duty was to be the collection of specimens and facts, to subserve the advance of science. We believe, however, that (with the possible exception of the savans, who accompanied the French expedition into Egypt,) no instance of a Scientific Faculty, complete in all the departments, has been presented, before that connected with the present enterprise. And while we feel a natural exultation in the superior munificence and intelligence thus displayed, we must confess that the reasons for adopting this measure have never been so urgent with any other government. No other

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

expedition has ever contemplated touching at so many points, or traversing such an extensive portion of the earth's surface. It is probable that the majority of the islands examined on this voyage will not be visited again for many years, except by wandering whale-ships. Hence, even supposing it possible for the knowlege of one man to comprehend every class of natural history, astronomy, linguistics, &c., the shortness of the time allowed him would render thorough observation in more than one impossible; and the opportunity, if once lost, would be irrecoverable. But such a prodigy of erudition is not to be expected; and well assured as we are that proficiency in any branch of knowledge is to be attained only by long and undivided attention to that study, we cannot question the propriety and even necessity of the arrangement adopted.

Their principal harvest will of course be derived from the yet unknown islands which they will visit. But they will be able to gain many acquisitions to their stores of science, on both coasts of South America and in the Eastern groups. There, indeed, they have had predecessors; but, not to speak of the impossibility of really exhausting any natural source of knowledge, — as is shown by the discoveries continually made within the vicinity of Paris; it is to be remembered that these previous visitants have labored under many disadvantages, particularly the want of that which is as necessary in science as in manufactures, a division of labor. It is evident that before any person, however gifted or indefatigable, can have succeeded in acquiring a thorough knowledge of many of the branches of natural history, both his age and his habits must have become such as to unfit him for a long and hazardous voyage. Accordingly the one or two young men who accompany European expeditions, though excellently versed in some particularly favorite study, have commonly not more than a superficial knowledge of most which they undertake. The consequence is, that they either, by attempting to include all the sciences in their researches, accomplish little in any, or, devoting themselves entirely to one, bring home, on all other points, nothing but hasty and crude impressions.

Thus the Society and Sandwich Islands, though in some departments of natural history tolerably well pillaged, will yet afford many acquisitions to the geologist, as well as the embalmer of fishes, and perhaps the impaler of insects. We say *perhaps*, for we have it on pretty good authority, that those

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pestiferous tribes which offer such a formidable array of names in the *Règne Animal*, are by no means partial to the Pacific Islands ; a piece of information that, we doubt not, will be received with delight by all the members of the expedition, except the entomological gentlemen ; who, however, may expect ample recompense on the shores of Brazil and Peru. As an instance of the danger of an attempt to undertake too much, we may mention Mr. Chamisso who accompanied Kotzebue in his first voyage, as investigator of nature in all her departments. In the capacity of botanist and zoologist he succeeded very well. But his labors in geography and linguistics were rather unfortunate. In the former, he discovered a general system for the outline or formation of continents, to which there is one example and one exception ; and in the latter, he assures us that the Hawaiian tongue wants the third personal pronoun, though he must have heard it, ignorantly of course, in almost every sentence spoken by a native. *

In the Appendix to Mr. Reynolds's Address, we find a number of letters, most of them from gentlemen of the highest reputation, on the subject of the expedition, particularly in relation to science. As it is our object not so much to offer any new views on the subject, as to show the general expectation entertained concerning it by those best qualified to judge, we do not know that we can do better than to present, in as brief a compass as possible, the opinions of some of these writers. The letters of Mr. J. K. Paulding and Commodore Jones (pp. 106, 128) give their views on the general plan and arrangement of the expedition ; views, which have all been substantially adopted in fitting out the squadron. Mr. Rodman, of New Bedford, expresses his opinion as regards one of its objects, with the earnestness of a man practically convinced of its importance. He asks ;

"Why should we have governors, judges, and all the paraphernalia of courts, in territories where there is a bare possibility

* In the preface to the posthumous work of Alexander von Humboldt, "On the Kawi language," we find mentioned among those to whom the author is most indebted, M. Adalbert von Chamisso, "*der mit verjüngtem Eifer die Sprache der Sandwich-Inseln erforscht, welche er selbst früher zu besuchen das Glück gehabt hat.*" We can only trust that the "renewed zeal" of this gentleman has been turned in a more just direction than at his early visit to those islands. Among the most valued correspondents of Baron von Humboldt, we remark with pleasure the names of our distinguished countrymen, Messrs. Pickering and Duponceau, along with those of De Sacy, Gesenius, Champollion, &c.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

that an Indian may be murdered, or become a murderer; steal a horse, or have his horse stolen; and not have a superintending influence abroad, where our ships are daily traversing from island to island, and from sea to sea, with the celerity and precision of the invisible dwellers of the deep; that the savage may be awed into respect, and the mutineer's hand be bound down in submission? Would not this change the face of things, and make the merchant lie down more comfortably, when he knew there was a diminution of the chance of misfortune by sea, not only by the proximity of aid, but also by the acknowledged influence of moral power which is felt everywhere, that a true and generous hand is extended?" — p. 117.

Professor Silliman's communication we give entire. It is evidently drawn up with care, and will be a valuable guide to future explorers. It will be readily perceived that the office of naturalist is to be as far as possible from a sinecure.

"*Yale College, May* 30, 1836.

"To J. N. Reynolds, Esq., New York.

"Dear Sir, — The expedition destined to explore the Southern Ocean, I consider as of the most vital importance to science, navigation, commerce, benevolence, and national honor.

"Upon the liberal basis on which our government has placed it, under the care of distinguished naval officers, and enriched by the first scientific acquirements of our country, we have every cause to anticipate an immense accession to the various departments of natural science.

"Money, in an expedition so national as the present, should be a secondary object, when placed in competition with the acquisition of high talent in the walks of science.

"Instruments of every kind will necessarily be one of the first items in this vast undertaking. I would recommend that *duplicates*, in every instance, be taken out; and where frequent exposure to injury may, by possibility, take place, many of the same kind should be procured.

"Allow me to present to your attention the following objects, as deserving of especial notice in your voyage towards the South Pole:—

1. Temperature of the Air.
2. State of the Barometer.
3. Winds and Clouds.
4. Thunderstorms and Electricity.
5. Tornadoes and Whirlwinds, — direction of the wind.
6. Currents, — their force, width, direction, — Temperature.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Meteorology and Luminous Matter.

1. Luminous Meteors, including those that project solid stones and malleable iron.
2. Shooting Stars.
3. Luminous points or balls, on or about the ship, in the air, and on the waters.
4. Phosphorescence of the sea, whether greater or less in high latitudes. Let the water be filtered, and the phosphoric animal matter be examined with and without a miscroscope: the animals from which it is derived should be subjected to minute examination.
5. Stars, their position; Constellations; Comets.
6. Eclipses; Transits, &c.

Zoology.

1. Shells, of every kind, especially with the animals within them, preserved in spirits.
2. Whales,— seals, kind and number of each seen; the highest southern latitude in which they exist; their number and peculiarities.
3. The Nautilus Pompilius; the common pearly Nautilus of the South Seas and Pacific, (or any analogous animal,) are deserving the most strict search.
4. Gigantic Sepias or Cuttle-fish, if found, should be preserved in spirits and brought home entire. Coral animals.

Volcanoes, Earthquakes, &c.

1 Earthquakes and concussions of the sea.
2. Waterspouts.
3. Volcanic eruptions.
4. Volcanic ejections.
5. Marks of former volcanic action.
6. Craters and currents, and various ejections of extinct volcanoes.
7. Volcanic Islands that have risen from the sea; how long in rising; with or without permanent convulsions; period in which they arose.

Geology, Mineralogy, &c.

1. Geological specimens and Minerals of every variety.
2. Inclination of strata; dip, direction, and thickness.
3. Succession of strata and order of superposition.
4. Situation of fossiliferous strata in relation to the sea, lakes, and rivers.
5. Granite veins or veins of other rocks, with their intrusions.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

6. Fossiliferous rocks; in every case whether covered by igneous rocks; if not, by what rocks.

7. Trap rocks; position; intrusion among other rocks; alterations produced by their contact.

8. Mountains, their height and form; on the coast or islands; in groups or single.

9. Elevation of coasts, as indicated by shells adhering to rocky shores, by waving water lines in the rocks; amount of elevation; testimony of inhabitants as to the time in which it took place; subsidence of coasts, islands, structures, &c., and the proof of the fact.

10. Coral reef islands; above or under water.

11. Ice Islands, magnitude; depth; motion; in groups, or single; temperature of air upon approaching them; and of the what surrounding them, whether transporting rocks or stones, and the lowest latitude in which they are seen.

12. Surface rocks of every country; that is, rocks in situ.

Magnetism, Electricity, &c.

1. Magnetism; dip and variation of the needle.

Osteology.

1. Bones of large animals, imbedded or loose. Bones of the ancient saurions or lizards.

2. Bones and skeletons of fossil fishes, with the including rock.

Entomology.

1. Insects.

Ornithology.

1. Birds, especially within the Southern Polar Circle.

Natural History, generally.

1. Animals and plants, preserved, — drawings of.
2. The Moluscous animals, generally.
3. Bowlder stones, in groups, trains, or separately.
4. Beach pebbles, of shores of the sea, of lakes and rivers.
5. Many specimens in all branches of natural history to be preserved, when necessary, in spirits, dried or otherwise.
6. Quadrupeds.
7. Seaweeds, fixed or floating.
8. Tides on coast; their heights.
9. Topographical peculiarities, of every kind.

"Every friend of knowledge looks forward to the finale of this undertaking with the most pleasing anticipations, while every American patriot must view it as reflecting additional lustre on the flag of his native land.

"I am, dear Sir, yours, respectfully,

"B. Silliman."

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The importance of observations in natural history, in voyages of this kind, has been long conceded. There is another class of researches relating to the manifestations of the human mind, in language, laws, customs, &c., which have hitherto received much less attention. Their utility is therefore urged by the advocates of these studies more at length, in several well-written communications. That of Professor Gibbs is most methodical. The following is an extract;

"After providing a practical astronomer, whose business it shall be to notice celestial phenomena, particularly the part of the heavens less known, because less seen; and a meteorologist, who shall attend to the multifarious objects which belong to his department, now fast rising into importance; after supplying the branches of hydrography and physical geography, which are closely connected, the one with the safety of the navigator, the other with the perfection of a science in which every schoolboy is concerned; after making provision for the different branches of mineralogy, geology, botany, and zoology, the claims of which are so justly appreciated by our numerous Lyceums, and by all learned and intelligent naturalists, we come to the *natural history of man*, — in my view, one of the most important objects which can be presented to the attention of the scientific corps.

"Permit me, then, to recommend, as highly important in itself, and adapted to the wants and wishes of the learned at home and abroad, and as an object which will redound to the glory of our nation, the addition of two members to the proposed corps, whom, for the sake of conciseness, we shall call the *anthropologist* and the *philologist*.

"To the anthropologist should belong the duties of examining, with a philosophic eye, the different tribes of men which may be subjected to his notice; particularly, he should examine their features, complexion, and physical conformation; their state of rudeness and civilization; their habits, manners, and customs; their progress in the arts; their political institutions, which, though rude, often display great wisdom; their religious opinions and usages, — the impress, as it were, of a moral governor on their minds; he should form a fair estimate of their virtues and vices; and, in fine, he should examine their language, philosophy, traditions, and literature, which, as they draw nearer to nature, will be studied with a deeper interest by the true philosopher.

"To the philologist should belong, particularly, the task of examining the various languages, with respect to their phonology, or elementary sounds; the forms of their roots, or radical

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

words; the inflexions for expressing the different relations of words, and the structure or syntax of the language; of collecting extensive vocabularies from natives and interpreters; and of furnishing materials for the comparative philologist, by instituting similar and analogous inquiries, in respect to each of the several dialects."

* * * * *

"I waive, however, more minute specification; hoping that, on a subject whose relations may be less obvious to men engaged in public life, our distinguished philologists, such as Webster and Duponceau, Pickering and Gallatin, may be consulted, in order to give impulse and direction to that part of the enterprise, the execution of which must necessarily devolve upon the younger and more hardy and inexperienced." — pp. 145 – 147.

Of the eminent philologists mentioned in the last extract, Mr. Pickering alone has given his opinions in a letter distinguished for its enlarged views, and the amount of erudition brought to bear upon the subject. We regret that our limits require us to be brief in our extracts. After alluding to circumstances connected with the rise and progress of philological science, particularly the impulse given to the study by the collections of the Empress Catherine of Russia, he continues;

"From that period to the present, the science of comparative philology has been pursued with increasing ardor and success, particularly in the investigation of the unwritten languages of the savage or uncultivated nations; for it is now found, to the surprise of the learned, who had formed their theories of speech from the Greek, Latin, and a few other cultivated dialects, that the long-neglected languages of the uncivilized portion of the human race present very many extraordinary phenomena (if we may so call them) in the structure of human speech, which will compel scientific inquirers to reëxamine and reform the theories, that have been formed upon too limited a view of this extensive subject.

"At the present enlightened period of the world, the basis of all scientific inquiry is the collection and arrangement of facts, or the process of *induction*, as it is often called, after some philosophers of antiquity; and unless this method is applied to the languages, as well as to the physical structure of the human race, the faculty of speech, which is the peculiar and most remarkable characteristic of man, will be the only part of his nature which will not have been investigated with the same enlarged and scientific views as his other powers, physical and intellectual.

"We must, therefore, begin our researches by collecting all

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the facts relating to human language; or, in other words, by collecting authentic specimens of words, and of the grammatical structure of every dialect within our reach. The more complete we can make our collection, the more correct and satisfactory will be the results deduced from them. Our progress in philological science will then be as successful as in other departments of knowledge. For instance, in geology, when a few specimens of antediluvian bones, and impressions of vegetable and other productions, were first discovered, they were laid up in museums as simple curiosities, and without the least anticipation of any thing like important scientific results; and yet, by the successive collections made of those objects, we now find the new science of geology has arisen, which enables us to form more just conceptions of the structure and phenomena of the globe, than had ever before been imagined by the most subtile and profound philosophers of ancient or modern times.

"The same thing will take place in philological science, as soon as we obtain an extensive collection of facts, or in other words, of authentic specimens of language; and, in due time, some genius will appear, who, like Cuvier in geology, will compare and classify all the specimens of language, and exhibit results that will be no less interesting and astonishing than those obtained in other sciences."

* * * * *

"By means of languages, too, we ascertain the affinities of nations, however remote from each other; a remarkable instance of which is that singular race, the gypsies, (from their supposed Egyptian origin,) who are dispersed over Europe, and whose language now shows them to be a people of *Hindostan*, and not of Egypt. In the same manner, it appears that the people of Hungary and of Lapland, notwithstanding they are geographically so far apart, and so different in their social condition and physical organization, are intimately allied to each other; and that the people of Otaheite and of the Sandwich Islands, though inhabiting islands at the distance of twenty-five hundred miles from each other, are of one family, speaking languages that are substantially the same.

"In short, the affinities of the different people of the globe, and their migrations in ages prior to authentic history, can be traced only by means of language; and among the problems which are ultimately to be solved by these investigations, is one of the highest interest to Americans, — that of the affinity between the original nations of this continent and those of the old world; in other words, the source of the aboriginal population of America. And one of the fruits of your present expedition may

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

be, to furnish the materials which may enable some American to confer on our country the honor of solving that great problem." —pp. 136–139.

Mr. Pickering then mentions, to show the importance attached to these researches, the fact that our great philologist, Mr. Duponceau, "has obtained for America the honor, (the first instance of the kind among our countrymen,) of a prize medal, awarded by that distinguished body, the Royal Institute of Paris, for the best dissertation on their prize question, respecting the original languages of America."

The letter of Professor Anthon, (p. 141,) is valuable for its suggestions, concerning the affinities of various Oriental and American nations. His theories are certainly ingenious, and will serve to give a determinate aim to future inquiries. It is to be regretted, that no one of these gentlemen has seen proper to state, after the manner of Mr. Silliman, the precise objects of research which he would recommend. As every student regards the science in which he is especially engaged, in a peculiar point of view, each would be likely to remark particular circumstances which might require or aid investigation. In the neglect of others better qualified, we may venture to suggest to the gentlemen of the expedition who are particularly concerned in these matters, the following objects of inquiry;

Anthropology, &c.

1. Manners and Customs of general prevalence; modes of salutation, &c.
2. Antiquities, traditions, monuments.
3. Religious ceremonies. The Taboo. Names and number of divinities. Ideas of a future life.
4. Division of ranks. *Caste.* Government, particularly with regard to the right of succession.
5. Treatment of Females.
6. Sports, especially games of chance.
7. Instruments of war. Modes of Navigation. Knowledge of Astronomy and division of the Calendar.
8. Modes of Tattooing.
9. Laws in relation to property.

Phonology.

1. Peculiar sounds, not found in the English language. It is probable that some have been overlooked by the missionaries, in reducing such languages to writing.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

2. Tone-systems, as in Chinese. Accentuation.

3 Interchange of vocables, both in the same dialect, and in passing from one to another.

4. General character of the pronunciation, whether harsh, smooth, indistinct, guttural, &c.

5. Alterations suffered by foreign words, when pronounced by the natives.

6. Instances of prosopopœia.

Philology.

1. Grammatical peculiarities; idiomatical expressions, of all kinds.

2. Distinction of objects into animate and inanimate; existence of the dual.

3. Manner of compounding words. Roots or radical words. Prefixes and suffixes.

4. Hieratic or sacred tongues; if two separate languages exist in one tribe, care should be taken to determine which is the original.

5. Hieroglyphics and every mode of communicating knowledge.

6. Names of the islands, and their signification. Names of animals indigenous to an island or country.

7. Instances of words altered or dropped, as frequently happens in barbarous tribes, from superstition, or other cause.

8. Words signifying abstract ideas, — how formed.

9. Numerals.

In general, it is to be remarked, that little reliance is to be placed on the information of interpreters, with regard to the niceties of a language. It will be advisable to obtain such words, as will correspond with those in the principal collections of vocabularies; as in Balbi's Atlas, Crawford's "Indian Archipelago," and the like.

It will be seen by a review of the foregoing remarks, that the duties of all connected with the expedition will be numerous and arduous. It may also be observed, that the results, however successful, will not be of a very striking character. The days are past when a ship could hardly venture out of the beaten track, without stumbling upon some important island or group, crowded with objects from which the naturalist might increase his museum, or the merchant extend his ventures. At the same time, we question whether an enterprise has ever been undertaken, of more immediate and extensive utility, both to commerce and science, than this,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

should it accomplish the objects for which it is intended. And with this assurance, the members of it may well console themselves for the want of that more noisy celebrity, which attends the discovery of a Papua or a New Holland, and the bringing home a whole menagerie of kangaroos and ornithorhynchi. Commensurate, however, with the advantages expected from their success, will be the general disappointment in case of failure. Indeed, a peculiar responsibility rests upon the conductors of this expedition; for upon their acquitting themselves to the public satisfaction, in this instance, will depend probably the degree of interest taken in future enterprises of the kind. They must consider themselves, in fact, as pioneers, who, if they fail with the amplest preparations, cannot expect others, less favored, to follow in their unfinished course, and complete the design which they have found impracticable.

With this warning, and with the best wishes for their successful return, we bid them, for ourselves, "God speed." And, hoping that they will leave behind, on their native shores, no other sentiment but one of the most friendly and patriotic desire for the prosperous issue of their enterprise, we cannot dismiss the subject, without saying a few words in deprecation of a feeling, to which certain well-known untoward occurrences, connected with the outfit, have given rise. There is no denying, that the course taken by Commodore Jones for the exclusion of Lieutenants Slidell and Wilkes from the commands for which they had been selected, (both, gentlemen most favorably known for their professional merit, and the former, one of the chief favorites of the country, for the distinction he has won in its literature,) has been generally regarded with strong disapprobation. There need be no hesitation in saying, that if, at the proper stage of the business, the Secretary had transferred the command to other hands, he would have better consulted the dignity of the government, the claims of the important service projected, and the general sense of the nation. The resentment naturally awakened by the publication of the extraordinary correspondence, to which we refer, has had time to subside. But if it has been succeeded by a settled distrust of the commander, as having proved himself wanting in some of those qualities of magnanimity and wisdom, which are reasonably looked for in one invested with so responsible a charge, this is a sentiment, we

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

would urge, which ought not to be entertained, to an undue extent, to the prejudice of so important an undertaking. One great mistake should not be thought enough to prove an utterly incompetent man, and Commodore Jones has meritoriously served his country in other times, when it was in a condition to owe much to the services of a brave and skilful sailor. Since it seems, in this business, it is a determined thing, that he shall have his country's honor in his keeping, we hold it to be the duty of every good citizen, to hope the best from his management. Perhaps he cannot reasonably expect, that any future questionable conduct will be viewed with the same indulgence, as if he had not already rendered himself so seriously obnoxious to complaint. But, on the other hand, he could desire no nobler opportunity than he possesses, for reinstating himself in the public favor so unhappily put at hazard.

To return for a moment to the first of the works under review, — the author of the "History of Circumnavigation" promises us, in his preface, a Continuation, which shall contain accounts of all the voyages of importance since the days of Cook; accompanied by a map comprising the latest discoveries and surveys. For this publication we shall look with considerable interest. The original histories of the modern French and German voyages, are usually too expensive to be generally known, except by abridgments; and the map, if well executed, will be of especial value, as a means of estimating the additions to it, anticipated from our own expedition.

ART. VI. — *Letters of Lucius M. Piso, from Palmyra, to his Friend, Marcus Curtius, at Rome. Now first translated and published.* New York: C. S. Francis. Boston: J. H. Francis. 1837. 2 vols. 12mo.

THIS work has appeared since the publication of our last number, and seems to be rapidly gaining the reputation which it so well deserves. It is an historical romance. Piso, the imagined author of the Letters, is supposed to have visited Palmyra, toward the close of the third century, to have become acquainted with Zenobia and her court, to have seen the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

city in its glory, and to have witnessed its destruction by Aurelian, (A. D. 273.)

The scene, the characters, and the historical events are finely selected; for they abound with striking images and associations. We are carried back to Palmyra, a city the history of which is unknown, rising in the desert, shown to the world but for a single age, in the height of its almost unparalleled splendor, and then becoming the spoil of a Roman army and its savage leader, who laid waste in a few days what was never to be restored. After this, a cloud of obscurity settled over it, and its ancient glories were almost regarded as fabulous; till, in the latter part of the seventeenth century, a few English merchants, from the factory at Aleppo, found their way to its wonderful ruins, and brought back a tale, for which they scarcely obtained credit, — which indeed caused their veracity to be questioned. Zenobia, the queen of this city, has been a name for poetry and painting, and history represents her as a woman of extraordinary intellect and beauty, united with great strength of character; an Asiatic princess, with Grecian refinement and Roman hardihood. Her principal minister, who is very happily introduced in the present work, was the philosopher, Longinus. Her victor, Aurelian, was the son of a Pannonian peasant, originally an adventurer, a common soldier; who, by his courage, ferocity, bodily strength, power of control, and skill in war, had raised himself to be the military despot of the Roman Empire, and kept himself at its head, almost five years, before his turn for assassination came. With perhaps occasional outbreaks of something like a generous impulse, he was on the whole only less hateful than some of his predecessors, because he did not, like them, mix up his atrocious cruelties with the utter vileness of the most loathsome sensuality.

The complete ruin of Palmyra followed its destruction by Aurelian. As regards that city, he might have rivalled the boast of Attila, that *the grass grew not where his horse's hoofs had trod*. Lying as an oasis in the desert, between the Euphrates and the Mediterranean, and favored with an abundant supply of water, it rose rapidly to wealth and civilization, as an emporium of the commerce of the East. Its Grecian name, Palmyra, and its Eastern name, Tadmor, were equally expressive of the great number of palm-trees which flourished around it. In the middle of the last century, there was but

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

one remaining ; the sands of the desert had encroached to its walls, and only a few Arab huts were to be found among its ruins.

At that time (in 1751), it was visited by the travellers Dawkins and Wood, to whom we are indebted for our principal information respecting its present state. Their published drawings and measurements are satisfactory ; but are accompanied with only a very brief narrative. After a journey of six days from Aleppo, through the desert, the travellers arrived about noon in view of "Tadmor's marble wastes." "The hills opening," says Mr. Wood, "discovered to us all at once the greatest quantity of ruins we had ever seen, all of white marble ; and beyond them, toward the Euphrates, a flat waste, as far as the eye could reach, without any object, which showed either life or motion. It is scarcely possible to imagine any thing more striking than this view." The remains of the city lay within a circuit of about three miles, which appeared as if it had been filled with public edifices. The whole ground was covered with heaps of marble ; yet among them the ruins of vast buildings were still conspicuous, "the greatest and most entire," says Wood, which the travellers had seen. Among these two were preëminent ; — one of them, the Temple of the Sun, standing in a court, more than seven hundred feet square, which was enclosed by a wall ; adorned on the outside with pilasters, and originally with a double row of interior columns, forming as it were cloisters ; the temple itself being in the midst of the area, surrounded by columns fifty feet high ; — the other, an open portico, stretching three quarters of a mile in length, many of the pillars of which are yet standing. All the edifices, of which any considerable ruins are extant, are supposed to have been erected during the period of less than three centuries which intervened between the Christian era and the destruction of the city. The style of architecture is almost throughout Corinthian ; but the vastness of the buildings has an Egyptian character.

It was this city which Piso, the supposed author of the Letters, is imagined to have seen in its glory ; and to have given his first impressions from its view, in the following passage. We quote a few lines, preceding, descriptive of the desert surrounding this cultivated spot.

"Upon this boundless desert we now soon entered. The scene which it presented was more dismal than I can describe.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

A red, moving sand, — or hard and baked by the heat of a sun, such as Rome never knows, — low, gray rocks just rising here and there above the level of the plain, with now and then the dead and glittering trunk of a vast cedar, whose roots seemed as if they had outlasted centuries, — the bones of camels and elephants, scattered on either hand, dazzling the sight by reason of their excessive whiteness, — at a distance occasionally an Arab of the desert, for a moment surveying our long line, and then darting off to his fastnesses, — these were the objects which, with scarce any variation, met our eyes during the four wearisome days that we dragged ourselves over this wild and inhospitable region."

* * * * *

"I was still buried in reflection, when I was aroused by the shout of those who led the caravan, and who had attained the summit of a little rising ground, saying, 'Palmyra! Palmyra!' I urged forward my steed, and in a moment the most wonderful prospect I ever beheld, — no, I cannot except even Rome, — burst upon my sight. Flanked by hills of considerable elevation on the East, the city filled the whole plain below as far as the eye could reach, both toward the North and toward the South. This immense plain was all one vast and boundless city. It seemed to me to be larger than Rome. Yet I knew very well that it could not be, — that it was not. And it was some time before I understood the true character of the scene before me, so as to separate the city from the country, and the country from the city, which here wonderfully interpenetrate each other, and so confound and deceive the observer. For the city proper is so studded with groups of lofty palm-trees, shooting up among its temples and palaces, and on the other hand, the plain in its immediate vicinity is so thickly adorned with magnificent structures of the purest marble, that it is not easy, nay it is impossible at the distance at which I contemplated the whole, to distinguish the line which divided the one from the other. It was all city and all country, all country and all city. Those which lay before me I was ready to believe were the Elysian Fields. I imagined that I saw under my feet the dwellings of purified men and of gods. Certainly they were too glorious for the mere earth-born. There was a central point, however, which chiefly fixed my attention, where the vast Temple of the Sun, stretched upward its thousand columns of polished marble to the heavens, in its matchless beauty casting into the shade every other work of art of which the world can boast. I have stood before the Parthenon, and have almost worshipped that divine achievement of the immortal Phidias. But it is a toy by the side of this bright crown of the Eastern

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

capital. I have been at Milan, at Ephesus, at Alexandria, at Antioch; but in neither of those renowned cities have I beheld any thing that I can allow to approach in united extent, grandeur, and most consummate beauty, this almost more than work of man. On each side of this, the central point, there rose upward slender pyramids, — pointed obelisks, — domes of the most graceful proportions, columns, arches, and lofty towers, for number and for form, beyond my power to describe. These buildings, as well as the walls of the city, being all either of white marble, or of some stone as white, and being everywhere in their whole extent interspersed, as I have already said, with multitudes of overshadowing palm-trees, perfectly filled and satisfied my sense of beauty, and made me feel for the moment, as if in such a scene I should love to dwell, and there end my days."—Vol. I. pp. 20, 21 – 23.

This passage will not excite too high expectations respecting the work, which is written throughout in a natural, agreeable, well-sustained style, though with a few negligences, here and there, which a slight revision might remove, and, also, as it seemed to us, a few repetitions of the same essential idea or conception. The magnificent architecture of Palmyra, the Temple of the Sun, and the Long Portico are finely brought into view in other parts of the work. In general, whatever is intended to be conformed to history and fact is represented correctly; and it may therefore be worth while to mention the error, in the passage quoted, of placing the hills near Palmyra, on the east, instead of the west; where it appears they stand from the account of Wood. While upon this head, we may as well notice another error of little more importance, but connected with a fact of some curiosity. Piso, in one of his letters, (Vol. I. p. 56,) says ;— "Returning, we passed through the arches of a vast aqueduct, which pours into the city a river of the purest water. This is the most striking object, and noblest work of art, without the walls." So a Roman aqueduct might have been spoken of. But there was, at Palmyra, no aqueduct constructed upon arches. It is a remarkable fact, that its principal supply of water was through an aqueduct *built under ground*, which has been broken, says Wood, about half a league from the city. He gives a plan of it, by which its interior appears to have been about four feet in width, by eight feet in depth. This subterranean construction is, as far as we know, unique among ancient watercourses. That the Romans were acquainted with the fact, that water when confined will rise to the height of its source, seems now

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

to be the prevalent opinion. But the passage of Pliny which has been principally relied upon is a little suspicious. He says; "Water confined in lead rises to the height of its source;"—*Aqua in plumbo subit altitudinem exortûs sui.* If he were acquainted with the general law of fluids, of which this is an example, why did he not express it in general terms, instead of stating a particular fact. We are reminded of what Horace says of the water, that "strives to burst its case of lead," *tendit rumpere plumbum*, when speaking of that which was conveyed through Rome, in leaden pipes from the reservoirs of the aqueducts. Considering the intellectual habits of the Romans, it would not be strange that a particular phenomenon should be known to them, without any inquiry following by which it might be traced to a general law.

It should be observed, however, that in a subsequent part of the work, there is mention of the ruins of a subterranean aqueduct, through which Zenobia is represented as escaping from the city when it was environed by the Roman army. But this is described as of much larger dimensions than that which actually existed.

We are not about to dwell at length on the characters and incidents of the "Letters from Palmyra"; for the work itself is much better worth reading, than such an account as we might give. Zenobia, except that a dazzling haze of romance is thrown round her, appears as she is represented in history. Perhaps we should except also her being drawn as a female warrior, ready to engage personally in battle, as is also her friend Fausta. For ourselves, we could well have spared this trait in the character of either. But our associations with ancient amazons, with the swift-footed Camilla, for instance, are such, that we do not class them with those who make the nearest approach to their bravery in modern times. Generally it may be remarked, that to the higher and more prominent characters, there is ascribed a nobleness and refinement greater, some may think, than the nature of an historical romance requires; for something of this sort, some idealizing of the personages of history it does require; as is shown in the works of the great master of the art. No character, perhaps, on the whole is more successfully managed than that of Longinus.

From a charge that has been brought against Zenobia, of having exposed Longinus to the vengeance of Aurelian, in

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

order to save herself, a charge that appears in most modern accounts of her, and seems to have gained general credit, she is, we think, successfully vindicated by the author of the Letters, in a note to his second volume. We were led in consequence to look at the narrative of Gibbon. It is characteristic of that historian. He thus writes.

"When the Syrian queen was brought into the presence of Aurelian, he sternly asked her, 'How she had presumed to rise in arms against the emperors of Rome.' The answer of Zenobia was a prudent mixture of respect and firmness. 'Because I disdained to consider as Roman emperors an Aureolus or a Gallienus. You alone I acknowledge as my conqueror and my sovereign.' But as female fortitude is commonly artificial, so it is seldom steady or consistent. The courage of Zenobia deserted her in the hour of trial; she trembled at the angry clamors of the soldiers, who called aloud for her immediate execution, forgot the generous despair of Cleopatra, which she had proposed to herself as a model, and ignominiously purchased life by the sacrice of her fame and her friends. It was to their counsels, which governed the weakness of her sex, that she imputed the guilt of her obstinate resistance; it was on their heads that she directed the vengeance of the cruel Aurelian. The fame of Longinus, who was included among the numerous and perhaps innocent victims of her fear, will survive that of the queen who betrayed, or the tyrant who condemned him. Genius and learning were incapable of moving a fierce unlettered soldier, but they had served to elevate and harmonize the soul of Longinus. Without uttering a complaint, he calmly followed the executioner, pitying his unhappy mistress, and bestowing comfort on his afflicted friends."

For the answer with which Gibbon furnishes Zenobia, his only authority is the following passage from Trebellius Pollio. "When, upon her being taken captive by Aurelian, and brought into his presence, he thus addressed her; 'Why, Zenobia, have you dared to insult Roman emperors?' she is reported to have said; 'I acknowledge you as an emperor for you are a conqueror. I did not regard Gallienus, Aureolus, and the others as princes. Thinking Victoria like myself, I wished to share the empire with her, could we be brought into neighbourhood.'"* This is not very like the prudent mixture of respect and firmness ascribed to her by the

* Hist. August., ed. Schrevelii, page 791.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

modern historian. Nor is it probable that even this answer, which is mentioned by Trebellius only as report, was really made by Zenobia. Victoria or Victorina was the mother of Victorinus, who, amid a rapid succession of assassinations and changes, obtained the command of the army in Gaul, and she appears to have shared in his short-lived power. But her name has almost disappeared from history; and if Zenobia had ever heard it, she would not probably have considered her as rivalling herself. The remark of Gibbon, respecting female fortitude, is like a large proportion of those appearing throughout his work in the form of apothegms, which, whether true or false, are trivialities disguised by the formal style of their annunciation. In endurance, woman has shown herself not inferior to man. That Zenobia had proposed the generous despair of Cleopatra for her model, is only an embellishment. For the narrative of the death of Longinus, we follow the author of the Letters in quoting the passage on which it rests, from Zosimus, who wrote more than a century after the destruction of Palmyra.

"Aurelian, returning to Emesa, sat in judgment upon Zenobia and those who had been connected with her. Then she related the causes of the war, exculpating herself, and bringing forward many others as leading her on, she being only a woman. Among them was Longinus, of whom there are writings extant, which afford great profit to such as are desirous of instruction, who, being convicted of the charges brought against him, was immediately condemned to death by the king. This he bore so nobly as to comfort those who compassionated his misfortune."

Such is the story which Gibbon has dressed in modern costume. To the confutation of it in the note before referred to, it may be added, that Zosimus was so ill-informed respecting Zenobia, and so careless of obtaining correct information, that in regard to her death he only gives a report, that, as Aurelian was carrying her with him to Rome, she died either through disease or voluntary hunger; * though two contemporary historians (Trebellius Pollio and Vopiscus) speak of her as having been led in triumph by the emperor. Zosimus, as if to despatch the whole business at once, proceeds with the same report, as stating that all those who shared in her rebellion, except her son, were drowned in the Hellespont. He

* Lib. I. c. 59.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

had before related, that some of them, at least, were put to death with Longinus. Trebellius Pollio, who could not have written more than about thirty years after the destruction of Palmyra, says, that the descendants of Zenobia were remaining among the nobility of Rome; and that it was reported that she lived with her children like a Roman matron; "Aurelian," he says, "having given her an estate at Tibur (Tivoli) still called by her name, not far from the palace of Adrian."*

We have quoted from the Letters a passage which shows Palmyra at the height of its prosperity. We will contrast it with another which describes its sack and ruin. Piso is supposed to have retired from the city with the family of a noble Roman, resident in Palmyra, Gracchus, the father of Fausta, shortly before the event, and to be viewing the scene from one of the neighbouring heights.

"After one day of preparation and one of assault, the city has fallen, and Aurelian again entered in triumph. This time in the spirit of revenge and retaliation. It is evident, as we look on, horror-struck, that no quarter is given, but that a general massacre has been ordered, both of soldier and citizen. We can behold whole herds of the defenceless populace escaping from the gates or over the walls, only to be pursued, — hunted, — and slaughtered by the remorseless soldiers. And thousands upon thousands have we seen driven over the walls, or hurled from the battlements of the lofty towers to perish, dashed upon the rocks below."

* * * * *

"No sooner had the evening of this fatal day set in, than a new scene of terrific sublimity opened before us, as we beheld flames beginning to ascend from every part of the city. They grew and spread, till they presently appeared to wrap all objects alike in one vast sheet of fire. Towers, pinnacles, and domes, after glittering awhile in the fierce blaze, one after another fell and disappeared in the general ruin. The Temple of the Sun stood long untouched, shining almost with the brightness of the sun itself, its polished shafts and sides reflecting the surrounding fire with an intense brilliancy. We hoped that it might escape, and were certain that it would, unless fired from within, — as, from its insulated position, the flames from the neighbouring buildings could not reach it. But we watched not long ere from its western extremity the fire broke forth, and warned us that that peerless monument of human genius, like all else, would soon

* Hist. August., pages 772, 791.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

crumble to the ground. To our amazement, however, and joy, the flames, after having made great progress, were suddenly arrested, and by some cause extinguished, — and the vast pile stood towering in the centre of the desolation, of double size, as it seemed, from the fall and disappearance of so many of the surrounding structures."

* * * * *

"On the third day after the capture of the city and the massacre of the inhabitants, the army of the 'conqueror and destroyer' withdrew from the scene of its glory, and again disappeared beyond the desert. I sought not the presence of Aurelian while before the city, for I cared not to meet him drenched in the blood of women and children. But as soon as he and his legions were departed, we turned toward the city, as children to visit the dead body of a parent.

"No language which I can use, my Curtius, can give you any just conception of the horrors which met our view on the way to the walls and in the city itself. For more than a mile before we reached the gates, the roads, and the fields on either hand, were strewed with the bodies of those who, in their attempts to escape, had been overtaken by the enemy and slain. Many a group of bodies did we notice, evidently those of a family, the parents and the children, who, hoping to reach in company some place of security, had all, — and without resistance, apparently, — fallen a sacrifice to the relentless fury of their pursuers. Immediately in the vicinity of the walls, and under them, the earth was concealed from the eye by the multitudes of the slain, and all objects were stained with the one hue of blood. Upon passing the gates and entering within those walls which I had been accustomed to regard as embracing in their wide and graceful sweep, the most beautiful city of the world, my eye met nought but black and smoking ruins, fallen houses and temples, the streets choked with piles of still blazing timbers and the half-burned bodies of the dead. As I penetrated farther into the heart of the city, and to its better-built and more spacious quarters, I found the destruction to be less, — that the principal streets were standing, and many of the more distinguished structures. But everywhere, — in the streets, — upon the porticos of private and public dwellings, — upon the steps and within the very walls of the temples of every faith, — in all places, the most sacred as well as the most common, lay the mangled carcasses of the wretched inhabitants. None, apparently, had been spared. The aged were there, with their bald or silvered heads, — little children and infants, — women, the young, the beautiful, the good, — all were there slaughtered in every imaginable way, and presenting to the eye

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

spectacles of horror and of grief enough to break the heart and craze the brain. For one could not but go back to the day and the hour when they died, and suffer with these innocent thousands a part of what they suffered, when, the gates of the city giving way, the infuriated soldiery poured in, and with death written in their faces and clamoring on their tongues, their quiet houses were invaded, and, resisting or unresisting, they all fell together, beneath the murderous knives of the savage foe. What shrieks then rent and filled the air, — what prayers of agony went up to the gods for life to those whose ears on mercy's side were adders', — what piercing supplications that life might be taken and honor spared. The apartments of the rich and the noble presented the most harrowing spectacles, where the inmates, delicately nurtured and knowing of danger, evil, and wrong only by name and report, had first endured all that nature most abhors, and then there, where their souls had died, were slain by their brutal violators with every circumstance of most demoniac cruelty. Happy for those who, like Gracchus, foresaw the tempest and fled. These calamities have fallen chiefly upon the adherents of Antiochus; but among them, alas! were some of the noblest and most honored families of the capital. Their bodies now lie blackened and bloated upon their door-stones, — their own halls have become their tombs." — Vol. II. pp. 229 – 233.

To understand what follows, it must be told that Piso had half become a Christian.

"The silence of death and of ruin rests over this once and but so lately populous city. As I stood upon a high point which overlooked a large extent of it, I could discern no signs of life, except here and there a detachment of the Roman guard dragging forth the bodies of the slaughtered citizens, and bearing them to be burned or buried. This whole people is extinct. In a single day these hundred thousands have found a common grave. Not one remains to bewail or bury the dead. Where are the anxious crowds, who, when their dwellings have been burned, eagerly rush in as the flames have spent themselves, to sorrow over their smoking altars, and pry with busy search among the hot ashes, as if perchance they may yet rescue some lamented treasure, or bear away, at least, the bones of a parent or child, buried beneath the ruins? They are not here. It is broad day, and the sun shines bright, but not a living form is seen lingering about these desolated streets and squares. Birds of prey are already hovering round, and alighting without apprehension of disturbance wherever the banquet invites them; and soon as the shadows of evening shall fall, the hyena of the desert will be here to gorge himself upon what they have left, having scented

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

afar off upon the tainted breeze the fumes of the rich feast here spread for him. These Roman grave-diggers from the Legion of Bassus, are alone upon the ground to contend with them for their prize. O, miserable condition of humanity! Why is it that to man have been given passions, which he cannot tame, and which sink him below the brute! Why is it that a few ambitious are permitted by the Great Ruler, in the selfish pursuit of their own aggrandizement, to scatter in ruin, desolation, and death, whole kingdoms, — making misery and destruction the steps by which they mount up to their seats of pride! O, gentle doctrine of Christ!—doctrine of love and of peace, when shall it be that I and all mankind shall know thy truth, and the world smile with a new happiness under thy life-giving reign!" — Vol. II. pp. 234, 235.

This is very powerful description, but not exaggerated. It only presents to our imagination, mingled with expressions of human feeling, the detail of events, that Aurelian himself sums up in a few lines of a letter, * in which no touch of remorse betrays that the writer belonged to our race. "Aurelian Augustus to Ceionius Bassus. Palmyrenes enough have been slain and cut to pieces. We have not spared the women; we have killed the infants; we have slaughtered the old men; we have destroyed the peasants. To whom shall we leave the country or city? Those who remain must be spared. For we trust that so few will be corrected by the punishment of so many." And he then passes on, with the same coolness, to speak of repairing the Temple of the Sun. Vopiscus, who reckons Aurelian among the few excellent emperors from Augustus to Constantius Chlorus, describes this letter as "exhibiting an acknowledgment of the most savage fury;" *confessionem immanissimi furoris ostentans.* Gibbon speaks of it with more calmness, and only on a later occasion makes some philosophical remarks upon the character of Aurelian; "He was naturally of a severe disposition. A peasant and a soldier, his nerves yielded not easily to the impression of sympathy; and he could sustain without emotion the sight of tortures and death. Trained from his earliest youth in the exercise of arms, he set too small a value on the life of a citizen." The historian adds, that "His love of justice often became a blind and furious passion." If so, it was a remarkable transformation.

One characteristic of the "Letters from Palmyra," from

* Preserved by Vopiscus. Hist. August., page 866.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

which they derive much of their interest, consists in the just views they afford of the condition of mankind during the period to which they relate. Facts are brought distinctly before us, so as to produce a right impression of the age;—the merciless and rapacious character of its continual wars, the widely-spread miseries of private slavery, the absence of a true standard of right, and the religious darkness of the pagan world. Nor are these painful features made too prominent; a benevolent and cheerful tone of feeling pervades the work; the picture is brightened by the conception of the holiday joyousness of Palmyra, by the amiable or generous traits of character ascribed to most of the principal personages, and especially by the light of Christianity, which appears as having risen above the horizon. Ancient history has often been so written in modern times that the reader, unless he be more than commonly attentive and thoughtful, will gain no correct notion of its proper subject, of the men of former times of whom it proposes to give an account. He will learn little more than names, events, and dates. He will have little idea of the real state of civilization, of the forms of society, of the modes of life, the feelings, occupations, and enjoyments of the generality of men, of the passions, vices, impulses, and principles by which they were governed, of the point to which intellectual culture had attained, and of the extent of its diffusion, or consequently, of the aspect under which human nature presented itself, so widely different from what it has assumed in modern times. The historian wants a philosophical comprehension of what he is relating. The facts of the age of which he treats are insulated in his mind, not grouped together so as to form a consistent and striking picture, not seen in their relations, not viewed comparatively with those of other periods and different states of our race. He has not imagination to discern the details necessarily involved in general statements; nor penetration, knowledge of human nature, and moral sensibility to appreciate as he ought the particulars which he brings together. He cannot withdraw himself from the circle of the age in which he lives. His modern associations cling round the events and characters of antiquity, and hide their real features. He limits his views to prominent individuals, concerning whom our information is often so uncertain, and overlooks the actual character and state of the mass of men, which, for the most part, there are documents enough to illustrate. As

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

shown by him, a veil lies over it, beneath which only the common outline of humanity is to be seen.

In regard to Greece, the excellent history of Mitford is of another character. But of the Roman empire we have no truly instructive account, except so far as the late work of Sismondi supplies the deficiency. In the history of Gibbon we doubt whether there are more errors arising merely from want of information or want of care, than might reasonably be expected in so voluminous a work, embracing such a variety of topics. It is the compilation of an industrious scholar. But in treating of the history of Christianity, especially in his earlier volumes, his suppressions of the truth, the very disproportioned prominence which he gives to particular facts, his quotations of single passages without the explanation which would change their aspect, his insinuations of what is false without the direct expression of it, his language hovering on the bounds of the ironical and the serious, so that it may be understood in the former sense, and defended in the latter, and his sneering and injurious tone, the result of utter incapacity to feel or estimate the moral interest of the subject, produce the effect of the grossest misrepresentation. In the other portions of his history, there is the want of a thinking and reasoning spirit to vivify the mass of facts. To the title of philosopher, which he particularly affected, he has no claim. He has given the detail of events, during a long period, with occasional striking expressions, and strokes of wit, but he has not given its history. He has not connected those events with their essential causes; nor viewed them as characteristic of the condition of man. His work presents a series of changes seemingly accidental; for the reasons are not made apparent, why the course of things might not have been very different from what it was, the same general state of society existing. His moral temperament, likewise, was as defective as his philosophical. It is not merely that he was an infidel, of the French school of Voltaire, nor that a trait of indecency which he could introduce in a note or insinuate in the text, was a lure that easily drew him aside from the serious and honorable purposes of history; but we feel throughout his history the absence of a just estimate of men and things, an absence of moral discrimination and sentiment. Though without an extraordinary number of mistakes arising from mere want of scholarship, his work is a *misrepresentation* throughout. Every thing is modernized

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and discolored. From a superficial reading of it, one may scarcely derive notions of the period of which it treats, more correct than what he would have of the ancient Greeks and Romans, if he imagined that the historical pictures of the French painter, David, actually represented the scenes which are their subject. His work is like an exhibition on the ancient stage. The painted mask, the buskin, the stiffened and heavy folds of the drapery conceal all characteristic lineaments and expression. His style moves on with its formal and pompous march, whatever is to be told. If we may use such a figure, instead of the faint flourish of trumpets at doubtful victories, the clamor of abandoned revelry, the wild sounds of barbaric music, and, blending with all, the continual wail of desolation, we hear only the constant monotonous playing of an organ with a small compass of notes.

When the veil or the pall is lifted from the age to which the "Letters from Palmyra" relate, we behold the Roman world overspread with armies. Everywhere are war, seditions, massacres, slavery, and cruelty. The Roman armies, formed, like the Free Companions or the troops of the *Condottieri*, of mercenaries of different nations, and resembling them in rapacity and savageness, were the true rulers of the empire. The emperors were those whom they chose for a time to acknowledge as their masters; either military leaders, like Aurelian, whose fierce and hardy qualities commanded their admiration, and gave them promise of success in war; or worthless profligates, like Gallienus, who, by unbounded largesses and bribes, purchased from them the privilege of indulging in the most detestable excesses. Among the nobles and the rich, there was generally that reckless and shameless abandonment to vice, that sole care for safety and selfish gratifications, which can result only from the absence of all sense of morals in a community where life and fortune are constantly at hazard. "*Amavit propinquos, res nostris temporibus comparanda miraculo;*" — "He loved his friends," says the contemporary historian, Trebellius, "a thing in our age to be compared to a prodigy."

But amid this state of things, which seemed to threaten the dissolution of civil society, a new element had been and was still working. Christianity had been introduced; and there cannot be a contrast more striking than what appeared during the first three centuries of our era, between the pagan

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

world and the new brotherhood of Christians. In becoming acquainted with the true history of the Christians of this period, we become conversant with men, who, whatever might be their mistakes or failings, or the vices of some of their number, present a wholly different character from that of the multitudes around them. We discern the high qualities and powers of our nature unfolding. A history that should fairly represent the age, a history, in consequence, unlike that of Gibbon in almost every feature, would constitute one of the most powerful arguments for the divine origin of our religion; for it would show the impossibility of its having had its source in those causes, which had been and were operating upon the condition of men everywhere, without the sphere of its influence.

We have been led into these remarks, because in the volumes before us the contrast between Christianity and paganism is beautifully exhibited. Though never obtrusively brought forward, it runs through the work and constitutes one of its principal charms. Of this no quotations which our limits admit would afford a fair specimen; and we shall give but a single extract from a very interesting conversation. In the course of the story we are introduced to an individual in extreme old age, a hermit, who, having been a preacher of our religion, had now, that his strength failed him, retired from the world to die. He is visited by Piso, who writes the account, in company with Fausta and with Julia, the daughter of Zenobia. The old man is speaking.

"'Till age dried up the sources of my strength, I toiled night and day in all countries and climates, in the face of every danger, in the service of mankind. For it is by serving others, that the law of Christ is fulfilled. This disinterested labor for others constituted the greatness of Jesus Christ. This constitutes true greatness in his followers. I perceive that what I say falls upon your ear as a new and strange doctrine. But it is the doctrine of Christianity. It utterly condemns, therefore, a life of solitary devotion. It is a mischievous influence which is now spreading outward from the example of that Paul, who suffered so much under the persecution of the Emperor Decius, and who then, flying to the solitudes of the Egyptian Thebais, has there in the vigor of his days buried himself in a cave of the earth, that he may serve God by forsaking man. His maxim seems to be, "The farther from man, the nearer to God," — the reverse of the Christian maxim, "The nearer man, the nearer God." A disciple of Jesus has truly said; "He who loves not his brother

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

whom he hath seen, how shall he love God, whom he hath not seen?" This, it may be, Roman, is the first sentence you have ever heard from the Christian books.'

"'I am obliged to confess that it is,' I replied. 'I have heretofore lived in an easy indifference toward all religions. The popular religion of my country I early learned to despise. I have perused the philosophers, and examined their systems, from Pythagoras to Seneca, and am now, what I have long been, a disciple of none but Pyrrho. My researches have taught me only how the more ingeniously to doubt. Wearied at length with a vain inquiry after truth that should satisfy and fill me, I suddenly abandoned the pursuit, with the resolve never to resume it. I was not even tempted to depart from this resolution when Christianity offered itself to my notice; for I confounded it with Judaism, and for that, as a Roman, I entertained too profound a contempt to bestow upon it a single thought. I must acknowledge that the reports which I heard, and which I sometimes read, of the marvellous constancy and serenity of the Christians, under accumulated sufferings and wrongs, interested my feelings in their behalf; and the thought often arose, "Must there not be truth to support such heroism?" But the world went on its way, and I with it, and the Christians were forgotten. To a Christian, on my voyage across the Mediterranean, I owe much, for my first knowledge of Christianity, To the Princess Julia I owe a larger debt still. And now from your lips, long accustomed to declare its truths, I have heard what makes me truly desirous to hear the whole of that, which, in the little glimpses I have been able to obtain, has afforded so real a satisfaction.'

"'If you studied the Christian books,' said the recluse, 'you would be chiefly struck, perhaps, with the plainness and simplicity of the doctrines there unfolded. You would say that much which you found there, relating to the right conduct of life, you had already found scattered through the books of the Greek and Roman moralists. You would be startled by no strange or appalling truth. You would turn over their leaves in vain in search of such dark and puzzling ingenuities as try the wits of those who resort to the pages of the Timæus. A child can understand the essential truths of Christ. And the value of Christianity consists not in this, that it puts forth a new, ingenious, and intricate system of philosophy, but that it adds to recognised and familiar truths divine authority. Some things are indeed new; and much is new, if that may be called so, which, having been neglected as insignificant by other teachers, has by Christ been singled out and announced as primal and essential. But the peculiarity of Christianity lies in this, that its voice, whether heard in republishing

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

an old and familiar doctrine, or announcing a new one, is not the voice of man, but of God. It is a revelation. It is a word from the invisible, unapproachable Spirit of the universe. For this Socrates would have been willing to renounce all his wisdom. Is it not this which we need? We can theorize and conjecture without end, but cannot relieve ourselves of our doubts. They will assail every work of man. We wish to repose in a divine assurance. This we have in Christianity. It is a message from God. It puts an end to doubt and conjecture. Wise men of all ages have agreed in the belief of One God; but not being able to demonstrate his being and his unity, they have had no power to change the popular belief, which has ever tended to polytheism and idolatry. Christianity teaches this truth with the authority of God himself, and already has it become the faith of millions. Philosophers have long ago taught that the only safe and happy life is a virtuous life. Christianity repeats this great truth, and adds, that it is such a life alone that conducts to immortality. Philosophers have themselves believed in the doctrine of a future life, and have died hoping to live again; and it cannot be denied that mankind generally have entertained an obscure expectation of a renewed existence after death. The advantage of Christianity consists in this, that it assures us of the reality of a future existence, on the word and authority of God himself. Jesus Christ taught, that all men come forth from death, wearing a new spiritual body, and thereafter never die; and to confirm his teaching, he himself being slain, rose from the dead, and showed himself to his followers alive, and while they were yet looking upon him, ascended to some other and higher world. Surely, Roman, though Christianity announced nothing more than these great truths, yet seeing it puts them forth in the name, and with the authority of God, it is a vast accession to our knowledge.'" — Vol. I. pp. 163 – 166.

Our general estimate of the "Letters from Palmyra," appears in what we have already said. It is not a work of an ordinary character. It is the production of a thoughtful, able, imaginative, and above all, a pure and right-minded author, of clear thoughts and sound sense.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ART. VII. — *Résumé de l'Histoire des Pays-Bas* par FRÉDÉRIC, BARON DE REIFFENBERG. 2 tom. Bruxelles. 1827.

THE people of the United States are descended from various European families, among which, although the inhabitants of the British Islands be the predominant one, so as to have stamped their own impress on the institutions and language of the whole, yet other races, and especially the German and Dutch, are entitled to great consideration for their numbers, and respect for their individual character. We frequently have occasion to observe, that Americans are prone to look back too exclusively to their English ancestry, and to dwell on the history and antiquities of England, forgetful of the fact that we possess high and glorious recollections associated with others among the best of the nations of Europe. Should we not be proud to reckon, as progenitors of our people, the greatest and wisest of the Republics of modern Europe, equally as the greatest and wisest of the Monarchies of modern Europe? Holland, as well as England? to explore the old history, to revisit the land of each, in pious veneration of our forefathers, all honored and deserving honor, whether they came from Britain, or from the kindred shores of the Netherlands?

For ourselves, we profess that, English as we are in origin, and proud as we are of our fellowship of blood with the great and free minds of Britain, we have yet trod the soil of the Netherlands, and looked on the monuments of her days of liberty and prosperity, and studied the history of her great men, with a sense of exultation that their blood also is infused into the veins, and with it, as we trust, their better traits are perpetuated in the character of the people of the United States.

In the strength of such feelings, we laid before our readers, some short time since, an idea of the fortunes and vicissitudes of the once free cities of Flanders;* and we proceed now to give a brief account of the ancient history of the Netherlands.

Men are accustomed to think and speak of the Netherlands, as they do of Italy and Germany, in the aggregate, and as one country; but the regions, which we commonly designate by that appellation, have been united together under a single gov-

* See the North American Review, Vol. XXXIX. pp. 112 et seq.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ernment only occasionally, and with protracted intervals of complete separation. During one long period we find them ruled by independent counts, dukes, marquesses, or bishops, who warred one upon another at will, and were each a petty sovereign within his respective narrow dominions. At a later period we see them grouped in two large divisions, the first acting the subordinate part of a dependency of Spain or Austria, and the second constituting a powerful Republic, and as such, gathering riches and fame in every quarter of the globe. And yet the geographical position of the territory distinguished as the Netherlands, and the national peculiarities of most of its inhabitants, fully justify the popular application of the name.

Enclosed between France on the south, and the Rhenish provinces of Prussia and other states of Germany on the east, is a low plain, which, as it approaches the North Sea, gradually sinks down to the very level of the ocean, from whose ravages it is protected by the laborious industry of man. This territory is traversed by the broad channels of the Rhine, the Maes, and the Scheldt, and cut up into islands or peninsulas, by the confluence of its rivers, or interjected arms of the sea, so that it possesses a humid atmosphere and a wet soil, but partially reclaimed from the water, and thus well receives the name of the Low Countries, or Netherlands. Its population, however, consists of two distinct races. Those of its inhabitants, who dwell in the south-eastern extremity of the plain, where it blends with the higher grounds of the neighbouring nations, forming about one third part of the whole population, are called Walloons, and are evidently of Gallic stock, and speak a dialect of the French. The residue of the inhabitants, residing near or contiguous to the seacoast, are quite as clearly of Saxon race, and speak the Low German, in its different forms of Dutch and Flemish, being subdivided into the Flemings and the Dutch or Hollanders. The Walloons and Flemings inhabit the provinces familiarly known in modern history as the Austrian Netherlands, composing the present kingdom of the Belgians; while the Dutch, in whom the national peculiarities are most completely developed, constitute the kingdom of Holland, the successor of the Batavian Republic and the Republic of the United Provinces.

It is somewhat remarkable that all the great changes in the political condition of this people are intimately associated with

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the mighty names of European history. Julius Cæsar, Clovis, Charlemagne, Charles the Fifth, and Napoleon, are the masters of policy and war, who appear on the scene at each successive crisis in the affairs of the Netherlands. We shall briefly recapitulate the leading events in the early history of these countries, from the date of their invasion by the Romans, down to the time when the various pioneers acquired their separate and independent princes, under the immediate posterity of Charlemagne.

Rome gained its first knowledge of the nations inhabiting the shores of the North Sea about a century before the birth of our Saviour, when a great host of those fierce barbarians broke in upon the Gauls, drove the Republican eagles before them, and defeated general after general, until the military genius of Caius Marius and the disciplined forces of the Republic, gathered under his standard, routed and utterly destroyed this terrible colony of the North, in a desperate conflict at Aquæ Sextiæ, the modern Aix. We possess, of course, but scanty and conjectural knowledge of the causes, which precipitated the Cimbri and Teutoni upon the people of the South ; — whether, as Florus affirms, the ocean inundated their native lands, and drove them elsewhere for a habitation, or whether, as Plutarch intimates, they were tempted, by report of the wealth of Italy, to follow the example of some anterior emigration of their neighbours, the Celts. Certain it is, that this dark cloud of Northmen, which so long lowered in threatening masses over Gaul and Italy, being thoroughly dispelled by the skill of Marius and the fortune of Romans, little remained to the Cimbri in after times, says Tacitus, but the glory of their past greatness, which wellnigh balanced the power of Rome. *

The Cimbri dwelt, it is known, in what is now denominated Holstein and Jutland, along the shores of the North Sea and the Baltic. Modern authors suppose that their line of march into Gaul lay through the Netherlands, and the displacement of the existing population, which their irruption occasioned, made way for the changes in that country, which speedily took place, and which gave to it the political conformation which obtained there when it was invaded by Julius Cæsar. Previous to that period the Batavi, a tribe of the Catti, the most

* Florus, lib. iii. cap. 3. Paterculus, lib. ii. cap. 12. Plutarch, Marius. Tacitus de Mor. Germ. cap. 37.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

warlike of the nations of Germany, had transferred their residence to the insular space comprehended between the Rhine and the Waal, and therefore called the island of the Batavi.* This martial colony, consisting of Germans exclusively, speedily communicated its own character to the surrounding tribes, swallowing up the Caninefates and other native races. Between the Batavi and the Gauls were seated the Menapii, occupying the country of modern Antwerp and Flanders; beyond the Batavi were the Frisons, these tribes being entitled to remembrance in common with the more prominent Batavi; and in these three nations we find the basis or germ of the Dutch and Flemish Netherlands.†

The Belgians, at that period, were comprehended within the limits of Gaul, divided by Cæsar into three parts, one of which, he says, the Belgæ occupy, as far as the Marne and the Seine; another the Aquitani, extending from the Seine to the Garonne; while the residue belongs to the Celtæ. Of all these, the Belgæ were deemed the least civilized and the most warlike, being the only people who had turned aside the torrent of the Teutones and Cimbri; and the subjugation of them, after an obstinate struggle, was the least of the great achievements of Cæsar in Gaul. Having reduced them to obedience, he marched his legions against the Menapii, who retired into their fastnesses, and left their invaders nothing wherewith to contend but wasted marshes and wintry skies; so that the baffled Romans were obliged to retreat and leave the barbarians in possession of their independence.‡ Thus it happened that the Batavi remained unassailed by him, and yet thus much within the reach of his influence, that, in respect of them, he obtained by negotiation what he might have found it difficult to accomplish by force of arms. Dazzled by the splendor of his reputation, they offered to him the benefit of their alliance; and, like the Belgæ, whom they resembled in their taste for war, entered into his army as auxiliaries, and served him faithfully and bravely in all his subsequent campaigns, whether against the Gauls or his countrymen of Rome. Thenceforth, of course, the Netherlands belonged to the Empire.

---

* Tacitus de Mor. cap. 29–31. Cæsar de Bello Gallico, lib. iv. cap. 7.
† Cæsar de Bello Gallico, lib. iv. cap. 4.
‡ Ibid., lib. i. cap. 1; lib. ii. passim; lib. iii. cap. 29.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The Batavians being drafted into the household troops of the early emperors of the family of Cæsar, performed the same service which the Swiss have so frequently assumed in our times, of aiding to maintain the authority of a ruler adversely to the interests of his subjects ; and thus they dealt back upon Rome the fit recompense of her ambition. Augustus made their island the head-quarters of his troops, in the expedition which he directed against the Germans, under the immediate command of his son-in-law Claudius Drusus, the younger brother of Tiberius. This adopted child of the Cæsars, whose preëminent abilities shed lustre on his exalted rank, pursued a career of uninterrupted victory among the tribes of Germany, vanquishing one confederacy after another, until his name grew to be synonymous with awe and terror, and descended to our times, in their language, as representing the incarnation of evil. Nor did he confine himself to military operations. He seems to have commenced that great system of laborious constructions, in the form of military roads, dykes, and canals, which, while they protected the Netherlands from the sea, rendered the latter subservient to the uses of internal commerce and of civilization. His premature death, at the age of thirty, interrupted the course of his brilliant acts, while the surname of Germanicus, made illustrious by the talents and misfortunes of his son, and all the magnificence of funeral pomp which imperial power could command, attested the grief and admiration of Augustus and of Rome.* The emperor transferred a large number of the vanquished Germans from the banks of the Elbe to the waste lands between the Rhine and the Maes ; divided the country into three provinces, called Belgic Gaul, and Upper and Lower Germany ; and gave to its various tribes the organization, laws, and refinement which belonged to the rest of the Empire. But the successes of Drusus, signal as they were, had produced but little permanent effect beyond the Rhine. Of this the Germans gave terrible proof by the attack of Arminius, or Hermann, on the camp of Quinctilius Varus, and the slaughter of three Roman legions ; an event which occasioned inconceivable consternation at Rome, so much so, that Augustus wore his beard and hair disordered for months, in sign of his grief,

* Florus, lib iv. cap. 12. Paterc. lib. ii. cap. 97. Tacitus, Annal. lib. iii. cap. 5.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

exclaiming, continually, "Quinctilius Varus, restore my legions!" and made vows to Jupiter Maximus for the preservation of the public weal, in the form adopted during the wars of the Cimbri and the Marsi.* This event caused the borders of the Rhine to become once more the scene of hostilities, and diminished somewhat the confidence of the Emperor in the Batavian cohorts; but their transient feeling of distrust in the Belgians and Batavians passed away, and the victories of Germanicus, the son of Claudius Drusus, avenged the defeat and effaced the shame of the Romans.† Here it was that Caligula, the son of Germanicus, spent a part of his youth in the familiarity of camps, from which he acquired his surname; and here it was that he degraded the imperial purple, the army, and Rome herself, by the spectacle of a mock battle with the waves of the ocean.‡ During the reign of Claudius, Nero, Galba, Otho, and Vitellius, the Belgic and Batavian provinces continued to follow the fortune of Rome, as indeed they well might, for the Batavian cohorts were foremost in the various political changes of the times, and exerted quite as much influence as the Romans themselves in the elevation of each successive emperor. The Frisons were sometimes in arms, and the Menapii appear to have yielded imperfect obedience; but the rest of the country gradually became thoroughly Roman, and received from its different governors institutions of education and public works of internal improvement, which compensated the people, in some degree, for the loss of independence.

Vespasian, however, arrived at the purple under circumstances materially different from his predecessors. Caligula, Claudius, and Nero, were not merely adopted children of the Julian family, commended to the Gauls and Belgians by all the authority of the name of Cæsar, but they were also a son, a brother, and a grandson of Germanicus. Galba, Otho, and Vitellius, strangers alike to the blood of Cæsar and of Drusus, were made and unmade, as we have seen, by the immediate agency of the Belgians and Batavians; and their active participation in so many contests for power, and that among individuals having neither personal nor hereditary claims to its possession,

* Sueton. Octavius, cap. 23; Florus, lib. iv. cap. 12.

† Tacitus, Annal. lib. i. ii. passim; Sueton. Tiberius; Patercul. lib. ii. cap. 117.

‡ Sueton. Caligula; Tacitus, Germ. cap. 37.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

could not fail to weaken their sense of dependence upon, and subjection to, the dominion of Rome. When, therefore, intelligence reached the northern limits of the Empire, that Vespasian had been saluted emperor by a handful of soldiers in the heart of Palestine, it found the Batavians ready to receive impulsion from any popular leader, possessed of sufficient daring, decision, and private inducement to assume the control of events. These conditions were combined in the person of Claudius Civilis, a Batavian of regal extraction, who, having incurred the suspicion of the government, had been imprisoned, in the time of Nero, and, although released by Galba, retained strong feelings of resentment against the Romans. Affecting to be another Hannibal or Sertorius, both of whom he resembled, in being blind of one eye, he incited the Batavians to take up arms, pretending to do so in behalf of Vespasian, in order the better to conceal his ultimate purposes. Assembling the boldest and noblest of his countrymen in a sacred grove, under pretence of a banquet, when they had become heated by excess and festivity, protracted into the night, calling to mind their ancient glory, and their present servitude, he exhorted them to throw off their ignoble fetters, and to show themselves worthy of their free forefathers, by manfully asserting their independence of Rome.

The effect of his address, upon the excited minds of his hearers, was electrical; and they solemnly bound themselves by the barbarous rites and adjurations of their country. The Frisons, and the Caninefates, under the leading of a chief called Brinnus, made common cause with Civilis and the Batavians; and the insurrection spread through the Netherlands, and the neighbouring regions of Gaul and Germany, like a flame. The Roman stations were taken by assault, their leaders plundered, their legions defeated and destroyed, and their provinces given up to devastation and bloodshed. Stimulated by the incantations of the prophetess Velleda, and hailed by the Germans and Gauls as the restorers of their independence, — *libertatis auctores*, — the Batavians needed only the hearty cooperation of the Gauls and Belgians, to lay the foundation of a new empire in the West. But, for this consummation, the time, it would seem, was not now ripe; the resources of Rome remained as yet, ample, and the strength of her empire unbroken. Civilis was at length checked in his career by the vigorous operations of the Roman forces commanded by Pæ-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tilius Cerialis, and compelled to sue for peace ; the confederates being discouraged by reiterated defeats, and glad, upon honorable terms, to replace themselves under the ægis of the empire. * After this period, the Batavians cease to possess any distinct history, until the appearance of the Franks on the scene began to change the face of Europe.

The elder Pliny has left us a striking picture of the physical condition of the country and its inhabitants at this period. "There," says he, "the ocean pours in its flood twice every day, and produces a perpetual uncertainty whether the country may be considered as a part of the continent or of the sea. The wretched inhabitants take refuge on the sand hills, or in little huts, which they construct on the summits of lofty stakes, whose elevation is conformable to that of the highest tides. When the sea rises, they appear like navigators ; when it retires, they seem as though they had been shipwrecked. They subsist on the fish left by the refluent waters, and which they catch in nets formed of rushes or sea-weed. Neither tree nor shrub is visible on these shores. The drink of the people is rain-water, which they preserve with great care ; their fuel a sort of turf, which they gather and form with the hand. And yet these unfortunate beings dare to complain against their fate, when they fall under the power, and are incorporated with the empire of Rome."† In this picture of wretchedness it is easy to discern the present features of Holland, Zeeland, and Flanders, allowing for the vast improvements in the face of things which modern art and persevering industry have introduced. But, miserable as was the condition of the maritime population in the days of Pliny, it became even worse for a time, in the confusion attendant on the dissolution of the Roman Empire.

It was in the region of the Rhine and the Maes, that the Franks first began to play a prominent part in history (A. D. 250.) Pouring like a torrent upon Batavia, Belgium, and Gaul, although defeated by Probus, and afterwards by Julian, they succeeded in establishing themselves so effectually in the Isle of the Batavians, that the name of the latter speedily disappeared from Europe. But the Menapians and Frisons appear to have allied themselves with the new-comers, both retaining their independence, and the latter attaching their name to an extensive section of the country. Nay, Carausius, a Mena-

* Tacitus, Histor. lib. iv. v. passim. † Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. xvi.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pian, sustained by the Franks, was proclaimed emperor in Britain, and possessed paramount authority in that island, in the Netherlands, and on the intervening seas, in despite of the Emperor Diocletian. Presently we find the Saxons also by the side of the Franks, and commencing, at the mouth of the Rhine, a kind of perpetual war, transmitted to their descendants in France and England; for it seems to have been from this point that the Salian Franks, impelled by the Saxons, marched upon Gaul, while the Saxons embarked for the conquest of Britain. Two centuries of bloodshed and confusion elapsed after the first appearance of the Franks, ere any thing like fixed order emerged from the chaos of contending nations. At length, Clovis, the grandson of Meroveus, completed the overthrow of the Roman power in Gaul, embraced Christianity, and established the Merovingian dynasty of the Franks in the region of the Rhine, the Scheldt, and the Seine, (A. D. 486.) Of this race, the early princes appear to have been worthy of their station; but their successors, the *rois fainéans*, abandoned the cares of empire to the *maires du palais*, who, supreme alike at home and abroad, in war as in peace, were kings in all but name, and ere long added the dignity of royalty to the possession of its substance. Pepin d'Héristal, Charles Martel, and Pepin-le-Bref, having followed one after the other in hereditary succession as virtual rulers of the Franks, although by title only *maires du palais*, Pepin-le-Bref ventured finally to depose Hildéric, the last of the descendants of Clovis, and transmitted a legitimate crown to his son, the powerful and imperial Charlemagne, master of the mighty Western Empire, stretching from the Elbe to the Ebro, and embracing Germany, the Netherlands, France, and Italy, within its vast limits. (A. D. 768.)*

It is melancholy to reflect upon the condition of the people of Western Europe, and especially of the inhabitants of the Netherlands, during the five hundred years which intervened between the invasion of the Franks and the final consolidation of their power under Charlemagne. "Let us look back," says De Reiffenberg, "upon that disastrous period. A country covered with marshes or impenetrable forests, and which the ocean continually threatens to devour, like another Atlantis, is thinly inhabited by wretched beings painfully contending

* Sismondi, Histoire des Français.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

with the elements for the earth they occupy. Romans and barbarians, pagans and Christians, Batavians, Gauls, Saxons, and Franks, mixed up in perpetual conflict, present a picture of moral and political confusion from which the mind turns with shrinking disgust. Nor is there any thing to relieve the horrors of the scene, except the noble ministration of so many self-devoted and fearless missionaries, who planted the seeds of religion and knowledge in the rough soil around them, and laid the foundation of modern civilization."

The Western Empire crumbled into fragments under the successors of Charlemagne. Louis le Débonnaire, his only surviving son, inherited the whole of his dominions; but a sanguinary contest for the possession of them arose among the sons of Louis, even in his lifetime; a contest which ended in the permanent subdivision of the empire. Lothaire, the eldest, with the title of emperor, obtained the territory which derived from him the name of Lotharingia or Lorraine, comprehending Burgundy and the chief part of the Netherlands; while France proper fell to Charles the Bald, and the Germanic provinces beyond the Rhine, to Louis. Taking advantage of the distraction and weakness of the empire, the Normans now began to make frequent descents upon the maritime regions of Western Europe, wasting every thing before them, and committing those horrible excesses which caused to be inserted in the litany a new prayer for "deliverance from the rage of the Normans." It was in these troubled times that the feudal system, in all its incidents of lord and vassal, acquired its full developement. Under Charlemagne all the great dignities of the empire were personal merely; but the civil wars among his descendants, and the depredations of the Normans, in diminishing the authority of the chief of the state, threw more of it into the hands of the temporary depositaries of power. In the reign of Charles the Bald, the counts assumed to themselves final jurisdiction in judicial affairs within their respective governments; and it was permitted to every man to choose, between the king and his great vassals, whomsoever he should think meet for his feudal lord, — obedience to such immediate superior becoming the paramount political duty of society. It needed only that the public dignities of the great vassals should be rendered hereditary instead of personal, in order to give complete organization to the feudal system; and this also the counts were able to accomplish. Meanwhile, it

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

became the custom of the times to found wealthy religious establishments, and to endow them with lands and vassals; and in several instances powerful principalities were erected in favor of particular prelates of the church, invested with all the qualities of temporal sovereignty, except that of hereditary succession. And thus a new complexion was given to the whole face of Europe. The people becoming the liegemen or subjects of the barons, counts, or dukes, bound to follow them in peace and war, but absolved from direct dependence upon the kings or emperors, all effective power was vested in the persons of the great vassals of the crown; who, by continual encroachment on the royal attributes, by successive usurpations, and by skilfully availing themselves of the force of circumstances, came to be each supreme within the limits of his feudal jurisdiction. Out of this condition of things arose the power of the Counts of Holland and Zeeland, the Bishops of Utrecht and Liege, the Marquess of Antwerp, the Dukes of Brabant, and all the host of petty princes, who appear on the stage at the beginning of the modern history of the Netherlands.*

ART. VIII. — *Society in America*, by HARRIET MARTINEAU, Author of "Illustrations of Political Economy." In 2 volumes. 12mo. New York. Saunders & Otley.

ON one point, unfortunately, Miss Martineau could have been at no loss, from the moment of deciding to write a book of Travels in this country. America her theme, satire was to "be her song;" the bookseller and his patrons are to be satisfied with no less than a pungent piquancy of remark, and this they stand ready to compensate with no stinted bounty. To an Englishman with the advantage of some notoriety at home to start with, and some shrewdness in the selection of materials which any journey in a foreign country will supply, a tour in America is a pretty fortune. Thus the nests of the respectable line of the Fearons, Fidlers, Halls, Hamiltons, and Trollopes, are understood to have been comfortably feath-

* Guisot, Civiliz. de France, tom. ii.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ered. When Mrs. Butler, in the exuberance of her wanton spirits, and the petulance of her unmanageable wit, had thrown off a mass of pleasantries about her future home, some of which her maturer judgment disapproved, it is notorious, that the substitution of those stars, which deform her page to the reader's eye, gave far more annoyance to the parties concerned in the money investment. No wonder. As often as those lines of stars stand in the place of some well-turned jeer, they probably represent a good golden guinea on the wrong side of the account of sales. The more praise is due to the honest and womanly feeling that made the sacrifice.

The point of view, from which Miss Martineau should look upon this country, was dictated to her in advance by her position in her own. A vine clasping the gnarled oak of the Westminster Review, — a Benthamite economist, — a radical of the radicals, — she was bound to commend, in general terms, the democratic spirit of our institutions, even if it should be found that, when she came to specifications, she was playing, with an English instinct, into aristocratic hands.

With these obvious considerations in view, we were able in part to escape a perplexity, which otherwise would have been not unnatural, in listening to the first comments on Miss Martineau's work. It so happened, that, appearing just after the completion of our last number, and other matters being then upon our hands, some weeks elapsed before we found a convenient time to satisfy such curiosity as we had respecting it. Meanwhile, we could not but observe the fact, that, while all readers found much in it to be vehemently condemned, most found something to be strongly praised. Everybody's prejudices, loves, hates, dreams, seemed to be "cottoned to" somewhere in these two compendious volumes; everybody's tastes and feelings to be outraged somewhere else. There could be no mistake about it; for the newspapers, of all inclinings, held the same ambiguous language as the drawing-rooms. We listened to all, with a very moderate degree of surprise. We said to ourselves, If a good-natured report were what was wanted, we can understand how a liberal should write upon our national character, at least upon our national institutions, in a consistently laudatory tone. Toryism, on the other hand, being the inspiring Muse, Church and King the key-note, we might safely enough guess, — but that some experience has spared us the need of guessing, — how bruised and black-balled we were to come out of a tourist's hands.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

But the present case is neither the one nor the other. The position is peculiar. The wholesale democrat is to act the satyrist in a democratic country. Friends and foes across the water are both to have their portion in due season. The *rôle* is a difficult one to play. Rather, it would be so, to any one who should see its difficulties, and care for them. But the preliminary question disposed of, a single course remains. There must be a free giving and taking, from beginning to end of the book; and if any reader is at the trouble of observing that the parts do not hang well together, he can have the reconciling of them for his pains. Moreover, in the present instance, the traveller is a lady, received with a very cordial hospitality in most parts of the country. Hers have not been merely the opportunities for collecting facts and opinions, which the public house and public conveyance furnish. Except when in transit, she has hardly seen the interior of our hotels. With that friendly welcome which happily a respectable woman may here command, she has been admitted to the unsuspicious confidence of very many a fireside. If there prevails to any extent, a sentiment which she has not heard expressed; if there exists so much as a singularity, in any class of minds, which has escaped her knowledge; if there is any misapprehension or exaggeration even, that haunts the musing and the wayward, which has not been mourned over in her hearing; if there is any one of those morbid vagaries, into which weak heads are impelled by sour or restless tempers, that in some *tête-à-tête* has not been commended to her patronage, of course some unaccountable accident must have been the cause. If, among the unlucky oddities with which this part of the world, like every other, is rife, there are any which she has not marked, she is not the observing person we had been led to take her for. Undoubtedly, if she has been careful to pack as she went, she has put up another Pandora's box, full of discordant mischiefs, such as an inexperienced antiquity had not the art to feign. If she have been a mere credulous listener, careful only to reflect honestly from her own mind the various views which have been held up to it by different parties, and *cliques*, and confidants, no marvel that her readers, belonging severally to the same classes as her several informers, should each encounter now and then that which precisely suits, as well as often that which vexes them.

So much for our poor theory by way of accounting for a

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

rather peculiar fact. An examination of the book has only so far convicted us of error, as that we find the inconsistencies, which we had been led to look and account for in the discussion of matters of fact and circumstance, to be no less apparent in the treatment of questions of a more abstract and philosophical character. Here, of course, the fault is no longer in the author's "stars, but in herself." It is unpleasant saying it of one, whose mind has been exercised in such studies as those of Miss Martineau, but a sense of truth extorts from us the declaration, that only one thing has struck us more, in reading her volumes, than the extreme inexactness and confusion of ideas which pervades them. True it is, that philosophical tours are not to be satisfactorily written, like picturesque tours, by the road-side; and we are ready to believe that this work would have been reduced to more consistency, but for the haste in which it is understood to have been at last tossed to the press. As it is, it is out of the question for us to undertake either to controvert all of its doctrines which we account erroneous, or select what we find reason to approve. The latter undertaking would only be to cull our creed on a large variety of subjects, from a heap of tangled ravellings of thought; and we have no courage for a task so much like that of the fairy tale. Should we attempt the former, when we were flattering ourselves that we had made out our case in opposition to one part of the book, we should but make ourselves liable to be referred to some other page, and told that what we had been urging was precisely what was there illustrated. Jortin, we believe it was, who said of Ecclesiastical History, that it was a Briareus, with a hundred hands, each smiting against the rest. Miss Martineau is no Briareus, nor a giant of any kind; but assuredly, her fair palms do smite against each other, most spiritedly, from beginning to end of her book.

We have said, that there was one thing in Miss Martineau's work, which had struck us even more than its want of clearness and consistency of thought. It is a thing which we have observed with the more regret, because we are enforced by high authority to look on it as an alarming prognostic of permanent misuse of her decidedly uncommon powers. "Seest thou," said the Jewish sage, "a man wise in his own conceit? There is more hope of a fool, than of him." Miss Martineau is no fool;—we have been looking over some of her earlier

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

writings to renew the satisfaction of our minds upon that head; —there would be more hope of her, if she were. She has talent enough to embolden her in her perversities; to make her imagine, that she sees the bearings of an argument, and the merits of a system, as clearly as she certainly does the features of a landscape, and the common springs of action in society; and to win commendations for her, which she too hastily interprets into a warrant for a very boisterous proclamation of very suddenly formed opinions. Lively talent there is no denying her, and skill in writing. Her "Traditions of Palestine," entitled, in the edition here, "Times of the Saviour," the work which introduced her to the American reading public, we have not seen since its first appearance; but we well remember to have read it then with uncommon pleasure. We have heard the "Five Years of Youth," called her best production, but we cannot profess to be ourselves of that opinion. An agreeable tone of gentle and just feeling pervades it, and the moral is of the first importance; but this, after being indicated somewhat too roundly, as it strikes us, at the beginning of the tale, is then made to wait too long for further inculcation. The story lags, and the lesson is scarcely helped along, till the reader has been conducted to the last scenes, when it is impressed, powerfully it is true, but by means of rather improbable incidents. Of the Prize Essays on Religious Subjects, we have seen but one; and that, we must own, appeared to us decidedly crude and heavy. In the two volumes of Miscellanies published in this country, composed of contributions to periodical works, we find several pieces which appear to us to be entitled to preservation in this form, though the work has failed to meet the taste of our American purchasers. Miss Martineau would, however, probably prefer to rest her reputation on her series of writings, ostensibly illustrative of the principles of Economics; the "Illustrations of Political Economy," "Poor Laws and Paupers Illustrated," and "Illustrations of Taxation." We have no doubt, that in this preference she is right, though our high estimation of the books in question would be founded on different merits, from what give them value in her eyes. Some of them are charming fictions, — disclosing a shrewd observation of life and character, and often no little dramatic power. As to the economical doctrines which they were intended to enforce, — true or false, — it was neither any novel nor any marvellously

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

striking character which they possessed, that gave the writings popularity. The present wonder about the doctrines, as far as there was any, was, that they had installed themselves in a young woman's brain. Like Pope's grubs in amber,

> "The things, we know, are neither rich nor rare,
> But wonder how * * * they got there."

We are not about to contest their truth. We have too much consideration for our twenty or thirty faithful South Carolina patrons, the whole number, that, from a very respectable roll, our former lucubrations on the subject have left us. We say no more than that the heartiest friend of a protecting system, and the related doctrines, may read those works without always having his pleasure in any degree alloyed by what he might account their heresies. We have just risen from the perusal of one. "Albeit unused to the melting mood," it made us weep, so pathetic and well-imagined was the story. But as to any theory therein exhibited, we declare ourselves to have been utterly innocent of so much as a suspicion of it, till we came to one of those "Summaries of Principles," so judiciously placed at the end, (like the prudent painter's subscription, "this is a house,") to illustrate to the reader, what it was that had been illustrated.

But whether these little books were somewhat better or somewhat less good, they by no means sufficed to justify the egregious self-complacency, in whose halo their writer was revealed to the "wondering upturned gaze of mortals," on this side of the water. "That degree of self-confidence," says Miss Martineau, since her return, (Travels, Vol. II. p. 164,) "which is commonly called conceit, grows in favor with me perpetually." We are incredulous. Till we have some more disinterested corroboration of the statement, we shall adhere to the opinion, that that sentiment had reached its height in this lady, long before her departure from the United States, and that it was scarcely capable of any accession of strength from the time when her first footstep was planted on our shores. We never knew sane man or woman, in whom it appeared to have reached such a morbid developement. Her coming was an Avatar. Her progress through the country was a Visitation and Inspection. Had any thing recalled her suddenly, she would doubtless have addressed a letter to the President, like the young Frenchman, Louis Buonaparte, to explain the ap-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

parent disrespect of not repairing to Washington, to wait upon the head of the nation. Sooth to say, this delusion of fancied importance was a phenomenon. It was not laughable; like one of Matthews's best exhibitions, it was absolutely too ludicrous to laugh at. So perfect was it in its kind, as to reach the point of a sort of sublimity. *Miror magis.* We tell no tales, when we say this. We should have known it equally well, had we enjoyed no opportunity of personal observation. The book before us is only the last act of the play, in which the consistency of the character is well kept up; — more *prononcé*, as, in the catastrophe it should be, but still the same.

If the conceit had been all, the pleasure throughout might have been mutual. The one party might have been happy in the complacency which it diffused, the other in the amusement which it afforded. But as there is a good-natured, so there is a froward and contemptuous, and therefore offensive vanity. Miss Martineau has a word in very free use, when any thing is said or done, which does not meet her views. We do not mean "disgusting," though that also unduly abounds; but "insolent." To "thank her for teaching us that word," would be to be thankful for a small favor, and we will not do it. We cannot so much as make acknowledgments for any pleasure which her own liberal applications of it have afforded us. It is language commonly thought to indicate neither good sense, good temper, good manners, nor good taste; especially coming from an accomplished young lady, in whom one looks, if not absolutely for the maturity, at least for the meekness, of wisdom. But if it has been even oftener in our minds while we have read the book, than it has been before us on the page, the fault is none of ours. In short, Miss Martineau's rash and worthless judgments are too often expressed in terms, having an unpleasant character of rude assumption. Captain Hall was not bashful. Captain Hamilton played the "bold dragoon." Miss Kemble was a brilliant hoyden from the green-room. Mrs. Trollope, though, in some matters, not wanting in sagacity to see what she was about, was on the whole decidedly and confidently all-knowing and free-spoken. But, in this ungracious peculiarity, the last of the tourists must be owned to be "fairly worth the seven."

We do not care to make a separate point of our author's facility of belief. Credulity is the almost necessary foible of travellers. If they are to see and hear nothing abroad which

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

is novel and peculiar, they might as well not have left their home; and particularly if they intend to write a book, the more extraordinary the information which is given them, the better will it serve their turn. One is often, however, compelled to observe, that Miss Martineau's easiness of faith is great beyond the common measure. She visits, for instance, the prisoners in the Philadelphia Penitentiary, and pleasantly records, "sooner or later, all told me their stories in full." It would have been worth while to hear "those sweet confidings of the past"; only that most persons would have had their satisfaction qualified by the thought, that the inmates of state prisons are not exactly the sort of people, most given to reposing a perfectly ingenuous confidence.

Let us try some of the issues we have raised, and perhaps one or two others which may fall in our way, by a few extracts from the first Part, of the four into which the work is divided. It is entitled "Politics." Now Politics, in relation to America, where some new and curious experiments have been trying (or been *being* tried, as our author would phrase it,) make a high theme in the judgment of some discerning minds; a theme, which, it might be thought, would be approached with some diffidence, by a stranger of a moderate degree of modesty. The poet commemorates a description of persons, who, he says, "rush in, where angels fear to tread." We certainly do not class Mrs. Trollope with the angelic company, and we have already said, that we are equally far from assigning Miss Martineau to the other class indicated in this antithesis. Yet Mrs. Trollope, in her feminine timidity, was fain to say; "I am in no one way competent to judge of the political institutions of America; and if I should occasionally make an observation on their effects, as they meet my superficial glance, they will be made in the spirit and with the feeling of a woman, who is apt to tell what her first impressions may be, but unapt to reason back from effects to their causes. Such observations, if they be unworthy of much attention, are also obnoxious to little reproof;" and again; "Both as a woman and a stranger, it might be unseemly for me to say, that I do not like their government; and therefore I will not say so." Miss Martineau has no such misgivings. Hear how she despatches two such small matters as the upper house of the national legislature, and the independence of the national judiciary.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"The principle of the general government is, that it governs the entire people as one nation, and not as a league of States. There ought, in consistency with this, to be no state representation at all; and the Senate is an anomaly. An anomalous institution cannot be very long-lived. A second chamber, on a more consistent principle, will probably be established in its place, to fulfil its functions as a Court of Review, and as a check upon the precipitation of the other house, and, if need be, upon the encroachments of the executive. There is yet more of compromise involved in this institution of the Senate; as might be expected, since there is no end of compromise when principle is once departed from; yet there are statesmen who defend it on other grounds than that its establishment was necessary to the foundation of any federal government at all. One observed to me, 'Some things look well in theory, and fail in practice. This may not be justifiable in theory; but it works well.' If this last sentence be true, the well-working of the Senate is only a temporary affair; an accident. Its radical change becomes a question of time merely; and the recent agitation of the question of Instructions seems to indicate that the time is not very far distant.

"The appointment of the judges for life is another departure from the absolute republican principle. There is no actual control over them. Theirs is a virtually irresponsible office. Much can be and is said in defence of this arrangement; and whatever is said, is most powerfully enforced by the weight of character possessed by the judiciary, up to this day. But all this does not alter the fact, that irresponsible offices are an inconsistency in a republic. With regard to all this compromise, no plea of expediency can alter the fact that, while the House of Representatives is mainly republican, the Senate is only partially so, being anomalous in its character, and its members not being elected immediately by the people; and that the judiciary is not republican at all, since the judges are independent of the nation, from the time of their appointment."—Vol. I. pp. 41, 42.

Miss Martineau doubtless knows how these things are, having given the days and nights of so many years to the study of the masters of political wisdom, and having so signalized herself by the writing of some dozens of agreeable little books. It perplexes one, however, to remember, that there were three persons, not without knowledge and prudence, named Hamilton, Madison, and Jay, who were of a different way of thinking, and that the views set forth by them, on these heads, in a book which they put together, and which has ever

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

since been regarded by us as our manual of constitutional law, were approved with an extraordinary unanimity of assent by the sages of our Revolution, he whom we call the "Father of his country," being unsurpassed in the cordiality of his attachment to them. It was the fancy of such dreamers, that, — whereas it was an unquestionable inference from the history of representative governments, that the law-making power ought to be committed to two assemblies constituted upon different principles, — the natural and fit basis for this arrangement already existed among us, in the relation which the American citizen sustained on the one hand to the united nation, and on the other to some one of the several States, which hitherto had been to all intents independent communities, and still were to continue such for certain purposes; and that again, the only security for the freeman's continued enjoyment of his freedom, — as against domestic usurpation, — was to be found under the Ægis of a judicial administration, the ministers of which should not be allowed to feel, that the swaying of justice to conciliate the tyrant few, or the tyrant many, was the condition of their places and their livelihood. Little as we think of Miss Martineau's capacity for perceiving the bearings of such a question, still the ignorant flippancy, with which she treats it, would have satisfied us that she had never seen "The Federalist," if she had not happened to make a long quotation from one of its numbers. She has seen it, however; and the knowledge of that fact forbids us to take any pains towards her "enlightenment." If she has seen it without caring to read its expositions of what, in the muddy infatuation of her vanity, she undertakes so summarily to dispose of, she has little curiosity for information which would do her good. If she has read those expositions, and yet finds herself at liberty to use such prating, it is certain she would be proof against our feebler arguments. — As for the rest, it has not escaped the reader's observation, that she finds that official competency, moral and intellectual, which we take to be contemplated as the great end in the arrangement of official functions, to have been, in fact, secured by what she accounts the present faulty organization of the judiciary department. Nor is the actual result materially different, it seems, in respect to that crying theoretical evil, the constitution of the Federal Senate; for, forgetting herself, perhaps, she says, a few pages further on;

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"The honor in which the Senate is held must depend on its preserving the character, which, on the whole, it has hitherto maintained. A nobler legislative body, for power and principle, has probably never been known. Considering the number of individuals of whom it is composed, its character has, perhaps, been as remarkable as that of the noble array of Presidents, of which the United States have to boast. If, amidst its indirect mode of election, and long term of office, it should prove equally stable in principle, and flexible in its methods of progress, it may yet enjoy a long term of existence." [Just now, it could not "be very long lived."] — Vol. I. p. 54.

As against the chief executive functionary, Miss Martineau assures us that we are safe enough;

"It does not appear as if the President could work any permanent effect upon the mind and destiny of the nation." "He can do little unless he acts, on the whole, in accordance with the mind of the people. If he has any power, it is because the people are with him; in which case he cannot be very destructive to their interests."—Vol. I. pp. 55, 56.

Amen. We too are hopeful patriots, and we hope and think that no President is likely to undo us. But we like to have better reasons for our thought than that to which Miss Martineau would help us; for we recollect to have read, "in our sad and philosophic youth," of one Julius Cæsar and one Cromwell, who had the people with them, but neither the people nor the people's liberties fared particularly well at their crimson hands.

There is a deal of detail and speculation in this part of the work, about the mixture and antagonism of aristocrats and democrats in this republican society of ours, the origin of the distinction, the causes, extent, and acrimony of the existing mutual repugnancy, and other kindred things. It all shows nothing else than that our author, bringing with her an English radical's notions of our American liberty, — notions having about the same clearness, except in the best informed, as an oyster's dreams of lark-catching, — had her ear abused by statements, some of which it is likely that her prejudices too eagerly welcomed, and others were apparently designed for experiments on that credulity of hers, to which we just now referred. One of these experiments, recorded in connexion with a historico-philosophical explanation of the degrees of republican tone in different States, strikes us as having been particularly bold.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"Within the memory of middle-aged men, the governor of New Hampshire used to travel in a coach and six, while the governor of the much more important Massachusetts went on a horse, with his wife on a pillion."—Vol. I. p. 33.

The connexion indicates, that the anecdote here vouched for Miss Martineau by some "middle-aged man," is to be understood of ante-revolutionary times; and she received and reports it, forgetting that New Hampshire and Massachusetts having passed into independent commonwealths sixty years ago, it is not in the course of nature for any middle-aged man to have seen the state, — grander or more sordid, — of their respective provincial governors. If she will take the other side of the dilemma, though we do not see how this can be, considering the place where the remark occurs, the case is made little better. That middle-aged man, — with sorrow we say it, — was no other than a smooth-faced wag, who whispered to Miss Martineau, that within his memory a republican governor of New Hampshire had made his circuit with a turnout of six in hand, while the august representatives of the sovereignty of the old Bay State sat bolt upright before Mrs. Hancock, Mrs. Adams, and Mrs. Bowdoin, when they took the air upon a pillion.

The truth is, that peculiarities which we have mentioned exposed Miss Martineau to erroneous information. We know a young person, — it is little to his credit, — who exercised himself largely in this way. It was not the same, who told Captain Hall, that it was our habit to accommodate the companies of strolling players with the use of our churches; but it was one of a like wanton wit. The thing was altogether wrong; but the pertinacious confidence with which other things were repeated in his hearing, which he knew to be equally unfounded with what he was inventing, offered a temptation strong enough to overcome his usual good sense. Miss Martineau was too frequently a mark, we fear, for molestation of this sort. Of course it was without any perception of it on her part; that was prevented by the very foible which was practised on. Yet the *naïveté*, with which she sometimes becomes herself the narrator of such doings, cannot but strike one with surprise. Who, for instance, would have believed, on any third person's word, that, with her perspicacity, she could have failed to put the right construction on such an incident as this which follows? She relates it as an instance of "the solemn pedantry

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of which the extremest examples are to be found" in the United States, and, with a perfect unconsciousness that her *collocutor*, more merry than well-mannered, was entertaining the by-standers with a caricature, — which was scarcely a caricature, — of her own too frequent style of remark. We ought to say that we know nothing of the circumstances, except from her own record, which stands in these circumstantial and graphic terms ;

"I was solemnly assured by a gentleman, that I was quite wrong on some point, because I differed from him. *Everybody laughed:* when he went on, with the utmost gravity, to inform us that there had been a time when he believed, like other people, that he might be mistaken; but that experience had convinced him that he never was; and he had in consequence cast behind him the fear of error. I told him I was afraid the place he lived in must be terribly dull, — having an oracle in it to settle every thing. He replied, that the worst of it was, other people were not so convinced of his being always in the right as he was himself. There was no joke here. He is a literal and serious-minded man." — Vol. II. p. 207.

But we have suffered ourselves to be lured from the scent. Let us go back to our Politics. And since here we must select, and wish to do it fairly, let us see with what degree of clearness and consistency Miss Martineau handles what we presume she would call the great principle of her book. "The majority are right," she says ; "the majority are in the right ; " and so on, with very frequent repetition ; only that when the majority, not doing as she would have them, do what she thinks is wrong, another doctrine of similar sound, but rather different sense, comes to her aid ; "the majority *will be* in the right."

Of the meaning of this principle, as a sound part of the republican theory, — shrilly clamorous as she is for it, — Miss Martineau seems to have no perception. We will try to help her, through the medium of her own more accustomed language. Her country is a monarchy ; that is, (for "monarchy" as well as "aristocracy" is Greek, and since she flings about the latter word, in respect to our American relations, in a way to show that she has no acquaintance with its sense, it is possible that she may guess as vaguely about the former,) the sovereign power is lodged in one person. Did she ever hear it said, in England, that "the king can do no

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

wrong" ? Probably she has heard it said; for it is a principle of the English constitution. And what did she understand those words to mean? If she took them in their whole possible latitude of sense, — if she took them otherwise than as a fiction of theory, supplying however a rule for practical observance, — she had better go encamp under the wing of the Khan of Tartary, for his government has no principles, and therefore none so horribly absurd. We suppose, that she understood them to mean, that he can do no punishable wrong; and that whatever he shall do, in the exercise of his kingly function, and through the constitutional channel of action, will be right in the contemplation of the English law, in the discretion of the inferior English officer, and in the obligation of every Englishman. It will be the rule of the kingdom's and of the subject's action, which the subject kingdom and individual must not dispute. Such a rule will it be, until the king shall incline, or be persuaded, to a different course; and then that other course will be equally, that is positively and indisputably right, in the view of the law, though it should be diametrically opposite to what was right just now. So in pure republics. "The majority is right." "The majority can do no wrong." Its will, expressed through that constitutional mechanism which gives it the only voice the citizen can hear, is absolute law. It is, for the time being, indisputable right; nor even if they who have composed a majority should afterwards be outnumbered, may they be punished for what they did in the use of a majority's prerogative. They exercised a legitimate discretion, and a discretion which they had a right to make felt by others; and even though, in the view of higher intelligences, they should, at any time, have been sadly stupid or treacherous in its exercise, there is no earthly power to call them to account.

If this had been all which Miss Martineau meant to say, she would have been, so far, a very sound republican of the school of Washington and Hamilton, Madison and Jay. But had this been all which she meant, or fancied she meant, — for all this strain of thought is mutable and vapory as a cloud, — she would neither have proclaimed what is our alphabet of the political theory, with such noisy repetition, nor made applications of it to such numerous results of minor and questionable speculation. If we read her rightly, she is much of the time possessed with the idea, that the preference of the larger number in a community of persons determines

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the fact of the abstract right; that is to say, if a million of men, less one, be divided into two parts, as nearly equal as possible, the larger of the two will infallibly select the more wise and righteous measure; the preponderating unit can never, by any possibility, be found in the wrong scale.

We believe, on the whole, that we will not try to argue that question, inasmuch as the logicians say, that to support an argument, there must be some common ground, and between a champion of this theory, and any one who should be scrupulous about a character for common sense, we do not at once perceive where the common ground is to be looked for. In this country, where people, when they announce their political maxims, are apt to consider what those maxims mean, we suppose it to be the prevailing opinion, and therefore (Miss Martineau being the judge) the right one, that no human administration can be depended on to do "always that which is right." Abraham thought, of old, that this moral infallibility was the distinguishing attribute of a higher government; and the same, as far as we are informed, is the general sense of the American people. They are of opinion, further, unless we err, that as often as a new truth comes to be perceived, so far from being simultaneously snatched at by just enough voters to give it at once practical efficacy, — ballot in hand, — it is, in the common course of things, first in the possession of one or a few, then of more, and by and by, through their exertions, of a sufficient number to invest it with legal authority; and that if circumstances cause it to be politically dealt with, before this last-named consummation arrives, the temporary decision will perforce be abstractly wrong. If meanwhile any principle could be adopted, by which the rightly-thinking minority could be recognised as such, and accordingly placed in power, the consequence would be the speedier adoption of the better view; and this is the attempt which all governments, except pure democracies, have perpetually made. We republicans think that they have always made it in vain; and that the experiment has been so long unsuccessfully tried, and at such cost, that now it ought to be abandoned. Recognizing the natural equality of men in the abstract right of having their judgments become operative, as in other rights, we cannot find, as others have thought they did, that political history furnishes any good reason for invading it. Actually, of two men, one will have more wisdom and rectitude than another,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and accordingly is a more trust-worthy depositary of power. Of ten men, the five wisest and best have not the same sense and honesty as the residue, but more ; that might seem a safe proposition. Of five men it may well be, that the two who differ from the others may think more correctly. Let them convince the others, then, if they can. But if they cannot, — if both parties insist that they are right, — what umpire is there to decide which is so ? There is none, we of this country think, who can be trusted to do it. One private man's judgment is as good, and must be esteemed so, for all practical purposes of government, as another private man's ; and, of course, by plain principles of figures, the judgment of the greater number must be regarded more than the judgment of the less.

We will not, however, do Miss Martineau's understanding the injustice of attributing to her the deliberate opinion, that on each and every occasion the greater number will do precisely what they ought, though she has repeatedly done herself the injustice to use the quoted words without limitation, and in connexions, where, if they mean any thing, it would seem that they can mean no less. In other parts of her work, she not only shrinks from the principle, as expressed in general terms, but either categorically, or by direct implication, goes to a length of contradiction, in respect to particular applications of it, which strikes us as decidedly harsh. We have this at one time in the form of a sort of counter-maxim.

"No student of the ways of Providence will * * * expect, that any arrangement of society can be made, by which the convictions and sympathies of the less gifted should be enabled suddenly to overtake those of the more gifted." — Vol. II. p. 151.

Again, it comes in the shape of a remark, which, occurring in a different connexion, and relating in form to a special case, does not appear to have occurred to our author's mind as virtually a strenuous denial of what she had been at such pains to impress. This majority, whose every action is pure, unquestionable right, strict, veritable conformity to the truth and equity of things, obtains and welcomes the information, upon which it so securely and happily proceeds, in the following manner and spirit.

"Of all newspaper presses, I never heard any one deny that the American is the worst. Of course this depravity being so general throughout the country, it must be occasioned by some overpowering force of circumstances."—Vol. I. p. 109.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"While the population is so scattered as it now is, throughout the greater part of the Union, nothing is easier than to make the people know only one side of a question; few things are easier than to keep from them altogether the knowledge of any particular affair; and, worse than all, on them may easily be practised the discovery that lies may work their intended effect, before the truth can overtake them.

"It is hard to tell which is worst; the wide diffusion of things that are not true, or the suppression of things that are true. It is no secret, that some able personage at Washington writes letters on the politics and politicians of the general government, and sends them to the remotest corners of the Union, to appear in their newspapers; after which, they are collected in the administration newspaper at Washington, as testimonies of public opinion in the respective districts where they appear. It is no secret, that the newspapers of the south keep out of their columns all information which might enlighten their readers, near and afar, as to the real state of society at home."

"It is no secret, that the systematic abuse with which the newspapers of one side assail every candidate coming forward on the other, is the cause of many honorable men, who have a regard to their reputation, being deterred from entering public life; and of the people being thus deprived of some better servants than any they have."

"The worst of it is, that the few exceptions to this depravity, — the few newspapers conducted by men of truth and superior intelligence, are not yet encouraged in proportion to their merits. It is easy to see how a youth, going into the wilds, to set up a newspaper for the neighbouring villages, should meet with support, however vicious or crude his production may be; but it is discouraging to perceive how little preference is given, in the Atlantic cities, to the best journals over the worst."—Vol. i. pp. 109, 110, 111.

Nor is there any hope for the newspapers in any supervision or example of the higher literature of the country, nor in a reforming public sentiment.

"There will be no great improvement in the literary character of the American newspapers till the literature of the country has improved. Their moral character depends upon the moral taste of the people. The demand lies with the many. Whenever the many demand truth and justice in their journals, and reject falsehood and calumny, they will be served according to their desire." — Vol. i. p. 111.

Of course, "the many" have not demanded "truth and justice" yet. So much for Miss Martineau's complimentary

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

estimation of them. But the unkindest cut of all is behind. Montesquieu, the subject of a royal government, thought that the judicious choice of rulers was a kind of public action in which republicans might be allowed to excel. He gave them little credit for capacity to decide upon measures, but held them to be altogether competent to the selection of men. * Miss Martineau thinks less well of us.

"The great theory presumes, that the majority not only will the best measures, but choose the best men. This is far from being true in practice. In no respect, perhaps, are the people more behind their theory than in this."

"It has become the established method of seeking office, not only to declare a coincidence of opinion with the supposed majority, on the great topics on which the candidate will have to speak and act while in office, but to deny, or conceal, or assert anything else which it is supposed will please the same majority. The consequence is, that the best men are not in office. The morally inferior who succeed, use their power for selfish purposes, to a sufficient extent to corrupt their constituents, in their turn. I scarcely knew, at first, how to understand the political conversations which I heard in travelling. If a citizen told another that A. had voted in a particular manner, the other invariably began to account for the vote. A. had voted thus to please B., because B.'s influence was wanted for the benefit of C., who had promised so and so to A.'s brother, or son, or nephew, or leading section of constituents. A reason for a vote, or other public proceeding, must always be found; and any reason seemed to be taken up rather than the obvious one, that a man votes according to the decision of his reason and conscience. I often mentioned this to men in office, or seeking to be so; and they received it with a smile or a laugh which wrung my heart. Of all heart-withering things, political skepticism in a republic is one of the most painful."

"The most learned men, generally speaking, devote themselves, in preference, to professions. The most conscientious men, generally speaking, shun the snares which fatally beset public life, at present, in the United States."

"There seems to be no expectation whatever that a candidate for the presidentship, or his partisans, should retain any simplicity of speech, or regard to equity, in the distribution of places and promises." — Vol. 1. pp. 24, 25, 84–86.

Et tu, Brute!

---

* "Spirit of Laws." Book 2, Chap. 2.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

But again, "the majority *will be* in the right." That is the resource, in exigencies which the other form of the maxim does not so well suit. They "will be in the right"; — "man never is, but always to be blessed." To be sure they will; but when, and in what matters, and with what conditions? The sentiment, properly regarded, is a sound one. It is the same which is sometimes expressed in less sycophantic, or if Miss Martineau pleases, more aristocratic forms. Will she have it in Latin? Long ago it was said, and is now sometimes repeated; "Opinionum commenta delet dies, naturæ judicia confirmat." Will she have it in English? Then it reads; "The truth is great and will prevail." Give time, and secure attention, and open a fair field, and the truth on any given point will make its way, till it converts the greater number. For the mind of man has an affinity with truth, which is always tending to bring them together; and providence has fastened the truth and its opposite to long and heavy trains of happy and disastrous consequences, by which their respective characters come at last to be known. There are, meanwhile, many things which ought to be settled rightly, but which the greater number of men, having affairs of their own to attend to, do not care about, and will not trouble themselves to obtain the information requisite for so deciding. Such are most private controversies; upon them the majority, if brought to act at all, would for the most part act too ignorantly to act with a sound discretion. There are other practical questions, in which it does take a strong interest, but which it is not therefore sure of settling in the right manner, inasmuch as, if it should proceed to act upon them, it might act under a present impulse of strong passion, preventing a discernment of what the right is, and even forbidding a solicitude to ascertain it. Then occurs that phasis of the majority's action which contemporaries sometimes call the majesty of the people, while the sterner voice of history entitles it the people's brutal madness. The French history about 1794 will furnish Miss Martineau with some incidents to explain what we mean; or we may refer her to a shocking occurrence, which she mentions, in the State of Missouri, in respect to which the ground of the majority's will being the highest law was actually taken by a magistrate, before whom the question came, in a breadth, and with a decision, which it would seem Miss Martineau ought to be greatly pleased with. "The majority will be in the right," doubtless, upon all such

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

things, but the better opinion appears to be, that it is not right when such things are done ; and, to prevent their being done, it has been thought best to institute courts of justice, to anticipate, for present action, that right sentence of the majority, which, for present purposes, it is not enough to be persuaded that some future time may bring.

Is it Miss Martineau's opinion that all such arrangements in society are merely so much useless trouble ? Does she think society should do nothing, when a question arises, but ring the bell and call the voters to town-meeting ? So it seems, if she thinks at all, when she writes, "The majority are right ; *any fears* of the majority are inconsistent with this maxim." This is her language. Yet we venture to doubt whether, if it were not for disloyalty to her principles, our author herself, rather than trust her cause to this arbitration, would not choose to carry it into a court of justice, where it might be passed upon by persons bound to attend to its merits, trained and habituated to such investigations, selected for their competency, and occupying a position to be secure against the influences of fear or favor. And though we have taken the simplest case, in order to expose the folly of the principle when viewed in the aspects in which it appears to have bewildered her mind, the same is true of all arrangements made by a society for the security and well-being of its citizens. Granted, that the majority of men will sometime or other arrive at the knowledge of whatever truth is within the reach of man ; they have not arrived at it yet, and till they have, it will not do to call them infallible. Granted, that howsoever intricate a question of law, whether relating to principle or administration, may be, the majority of a nation will settle it rightly, when they have had their attention turned to it, and have considered it long enough ; still the people of America remember, that the majority has a great deal to think of, and is not likely to trouble itself much about every individual's small affairs ; that many questions both of rule and of application, are of such a nature as to demand much previous inquiry in order to their right solution ; and many demand to be settled without delay for practical use, inasmuch as the days of the individual's years are only three score years and ten. Accordingly, they have thought it wise to commit such questions to the care of chosen men in legislative and judicial trusts, believing that the decisions of such men, pre-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

sumed to be selected for their integrity and competency, will be the same decisions which the majority themselves would eventually arrive at, if they would give themselves to such investigations ; — that, in short, that judgment of the majority, which Miss Martineau says *will be* right, will be anticipated by the majority's representatives, and announced in time to be of use. And as even this is but an approximation, — though the best, in our American thought, which has been devised, — to a perfect administration of government and justice, we believe the American people are content to have any one think, that upon any given point, the majority are as yet in the wrong, though, sooner or later, in some age of the world's life, they will be in the right, upon any matter which remains upon their minds ; from which further it seems to follow, that even fear of the majority's action, in some given case, is not (as far as fear can be justified at all) so very unreasonable a feeling.

The confusion of our author's mind on this subject of the affinity between the majority's will and the right, is absolutely unfathomable. Her hobby limps round its mill till the whirl completely dizzies her. "Nothing," she says,

"Nothing can be more striking to a stranger than the experience gained, after some residence in the United States, of the ultimate ascendency of the will of the majority, — *i. e.* of the right, — in defiance of all appearances to the contrary." — Vol. I. p. 44.

How can this experience "of the ultimate ascendency of the will of the majority" be so very "striking" to a stranger, when he knows beforehand, if he knows any thing of the characteristic institutions of this country, that they provide for the will of the majority going into effect with small delay ? What "appearances to the contrary" of that result can there be ? "The right," if Miss Martineau chooses so far to contradict herself, may be, for the time being, maintained by a minority ; and as long as it is so, it would indeed be "striking" to see the right obtain ascendency, inasmuch as the thing is impossible. But as soon as it becomes that "will of the majority," with which she expressly identifies it, in the same sentence, the wonder would be that it should not obtain ascendency, inasmuch as it could not fail to do so.

Again ;

"There is a spreading dislike of Associations for moral, while there is a growing attachment to them for mechanical, objects.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The majority will show to those who may be living at the time what is the right." — Vol. II. p. 299.

"Those who may be living" at what time? There is a majority in respect to the question, favorable or unfavorable, now. There will be a majority, entertaining the same or a different view respecting it, ten years hence, fifty years, a hundred. What generation is it, "living at *the* time," to which the majority will show what is the right? — It is recorded of a barrister, that he opened his argument by begging the Judge to observe, that "if ever there was a case which beyond all other cases brought to view the principles to be applied in such a case, this case is that case." "Which case, brother A?" was all that his Lordship, in his helplessness, could reply.

And, worst of all, a view to "*the* time," may demand to be retrospective rather than prophetic; for

"Many excellent leaders of the democratic party think the people at large less fit to govern themselves wisely, than they were five-and-twenty years ago." — Vol. I. p. 319.

We have been as impatient as our readers can be to get out of this speculative slough. We would have trusted to Miss Martineau to contradict herself, — we could not trust the work to better hands, — were it not that the boldness of the one side of her theory is naturally more *salient* than the caution of the other. But we cannot pass on to the few words, which we have to say upon other matters, without a remark or two upon the freedom, with which, professing to be a friend to free institutions, she has held up the operation of them among us to the view of their enemies in her own country, and wherever her book may find readers. If the representations which she has ventured to make had come from some different quarters, we should have felt no surprise, whatever sorrow and indignation they might have excited. As things are, the best we have to hope is, that the incoherence between the theory with which she declares herself so possessed, and her statements respecting us of this nation, who have gone furthest in applying it to practice, will create a wholesome distrust on the part of her foreign readers respecting her capacity for making observations.

All institutions of civil government, being human, are subject to some dangers. We do not expect our republican institutions to be free from them. Of dangers affecting us, we suppose that all wise men see two to be chief; viz. the dan-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ger, that law, which embodies the deliberate popular will, will not, on all occasions, be strong enough to overawe or control sudden outbreaks of popular feeling, of a criminal and mischievous character ; and the danger that, where every man is every other's equal, and accordingly has something to hope and fear from the favor and displeasure of every other, there will be a universal mutual restraint on freedom of opinion, speech, and action, which will do more subtilly, but if not counteracted, may in some respects do more effectually, the enslaving work, which republicans are apt to charge upon apparently severer forms of government. Of course, this is the ground which skilful assailants of our institutions would choose to take. It is precisely the ground, which again and again they have taken. But no writer, that we know of, has gone any thing like the length of Miss Martineau, in declaring these tendencies to be actually manifested among us in destructive operation. They occupy the foreground of her picture.

The dangers are real. No patriotic American can shut his eyes against them. As to the latter, the extent to which the influence operates upon individual minds is an endlessly complicated question, which no one, — certainly no stranger, — is competent to solve ; and wholesale charges may be as foolish and false, as they are confident and violent. The protection to be looked for is in a clear sense of the danger, and, in great part, in other influences upon society and the citizen, which republican institutions are calculated to exert. The former danger, whenever it takes effect, speaks for itself for the present, and may well inspire the most painful apprehensions for the future. We have no words of qualified abhorrence, with which to speak of riots, — of illegal combinations of any kind, — whether more or less wickedness be perpetrated by them for the time being. We can only wonder at, and bewail the infatuation of such, as can countenance them on any occasion, for any pretence, to any end. Those of which this country has been the scene, are undoubtedly, by eminence, the portion of its history to call up distressing and humbling recollections. We mourn over them in the bitterness of our spirit. But we do not therefore despair of the republic. We know that, in the course of any people's history, times of strong excitement are likely to occur ; and when they do occur, we know of only two perfect securities against the vio-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

lence of mobs. The one is, strong principle in the people; the other is, cold iron over them. The Emperor Nicholas has an effectual way of dealing with such movements; so effectual, that his subjects never put him to the trial. But though it has the advantage over ours in point of certain efficacy, we would rather trust to our own than take his, along with its disagreeable concomitants.

True it is, that ours has not always worked as well as could be wished. The more is the pity. We must try to make it work better for the future. We must make it work better, not so much for our credit's sake, as for the sake of our safety, of our continued being, as a free community. And we expect to do so. The existence, and the peace, and the fame of England have survived Lord George Gordon's mob; and we shall yet, if we be but staunch for the future, have a strong and an honored place upon the nations, for all that has come and gone. But the present wonder is, that a professed champion of free institutions should have dealt in such an off-hand and such a one-sided way with the topics we have named. She has not been insensible, indeed, of the awkwardness of her position, and meets the difficulty by pleading, in her section entitled "Allegiance to Law," that mobs in America are composed of "gentry," or "the aristocracy." But of course, this is only that figure of speech, which is sometimes called throwing dust in the eyes. She knows well enough, that to apply such expressions to any class of our citizens is merely to use a license of rhetoric; and that if she can make it out to the satisfaction of English readers, that law has no power here to restrain outrage, they will feel little curiosity to learn whether the generality of our rioters wear green baize roundabouts, or fasten their broadcloth with gilt buttons.

The majority is always right; but nevertheless, in republican America riot and outrage are the order of the day. Self-governed America is a fine free country, but it is a country where every man is the miserable slave of every other; where, "to think what you will, and speak what you think," is a misdemeanor on which the unmitigated weight of popular displeasure falls. So much for Miss Martineau's amiable zeal for our institutions. There is only one thing more, for which the friends of Church and King would care to thank her, and this they must wait for, till they get towards the close of her book; but the connexion of the subject is such, that we will rather

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

advert to it now. The advocates of the English ecclesiastical establishment urge no other argument with so much confidence in favor of the rich livings of a portion of the clergy, and the independence of all on popular election, as the necessity of their being in this situation in order to an honest discharge of their functions. The clergyman, say they, who depends upon the public favor, will be sure to lower his standard of doctrine and duty to meet the demands of the popular will. If he is to "rebuke with authority," he must rebuke from an independent position; and to this end, there must even be those of this body, who shall be on a level with the highest subject. To the friends of this theory, Miss Martineau's assurance, that "the American clergy are the most backward and timid class in the society in which they live, the least informed with true knowledge, the least efficient in virtuous action," cannot fail to afford the most lively pleasure.

It is not worth while for us to stop, to appeal to any who are competent to form a judgment, whether it can be reasonably pretended that ever, since Christianity came forth from the primitive purity of her persecuted days, she has commanded the services of a more self-denying, indefatigable, and faithful body of clergy, than the existing clergy of all denominations in America. It would be a presuming folly in us, to affect to be their champions against such a charge from such a source. But what, in the name of all that is credible, does their deluded traducer mean, we do not say by such sorry extravagances, but by extravagances of fact, so at war with her own extravagances of theory, as here, and elsewhere that we have pointed out, she is thrusting on the credulity of her readers at home, as if in vengeance for the hardships which her own credulity suffered while abroad? Has she no aim? How could she undertake to write; and then, too, how can such representations be accounted for? Has she an aim? What is it? Is she, in American phrase, on the fence? Is she coquetting between Orangeism and Reform? Has she that conceit of her powers, that she means to try her hand at mystifying ministers, those who are, and those who may be? She was used to call the fair Majesty of England her "pupil," on the ground, we believe, of some of her little books being supposed to have been put into the princess's hands. Has she conceived the lofty hope of standing in some nearer relation to that illustrious personage? Has she lifted her aspiring eye to one of the places

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

now held by the "gorgeous dames" of the houses of Petty and Leveson-Gower; and would she plant on our remote soil, the foot of her "young ambition's ladder?" Should the prospects of my Lord Durham continue to brighten, does she mean to have her strong-hold in the common places of radicalism, which she has scattered broad-cast over her pages? Should his grace of Wellington see better days, is she intending to call his attention to what she has so vigorously written of the predominance of mob law, and the universal slavery of the mind, in republican America? When she thinks of the fair prospects of the Agitator, does she propose to hang on his skirts by force of her remarks on "the danger of a careless, ambitious, worldly clergy, in the richer priests of the church" of England? If the star of Derby should come into the ascendent, is what she has said of the depravity of the American clergy, under the Voluntary Principle, the tide which is to "lead on to fortune"? Let who can propound. We assume not to interpret the ambiguous words which she has dispensed with such large alternate liberality.

We must pass lightly over other discussions of Miss Martineau, touching our politics, which cannot fail to be well received in the quarters which in theory she does not propose to serve. Our "apathy in citizenship," particularly as exhibited in being "afraid to vote," she represents as extreme. Our sectional prejudices she understands to be of the most malignantly aggravated character, such as she rightly, though somewhat daintily, declares, "cannot coexist with a generous patriotism." We have had opportunity to make some observations on most of the six-and-twenty states, and in no one of them (though we have certainly listened to ill-natured remarks) did we ever happen to hear language of exactly the strength, which it seems was addressed to her. We but set down her representation for what it may be worth, having expressly declined the office of contradicting any of those views of hers, in this connexion, which she has happened to leave uncontradicted under her own hand.

"'Hatred' is not too strong a term for this sectional prejudice. Many a time in America have I been conscious of that pang and shudder which are felt only in the presence of hatred. I question whether the enmity between the British and the Americans, at the most exasperating crisis of the war, could ever have been more intense than some that I have seen flashing in the eyes,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and heard from the lips, of Americans against fellow-citizens in distant sections of their country. I have scarcely known whether to laugh or to mourn when I have been told, that the New England people are all pedlers or canting priests; that the people of the south are all heathens; and those of the west all barbarians. Nay, I was even told in New York, that the Rhode Island people were all heathens, and the New Jersey folks were no better."—Vol. I. pp. 137, 138.

On the other hand, our institutions are in fault, because of what she entitles, the "political non-existence of women," and because (except in Rapp's settlement, and those of the Shakers, neither of which, however, for other reasons, meets her idea of a perfect commonwealth,) property is here held in severalty. On the former point she is very strenuous, devoting a stirringly polemic chapter to the defence of what she entitles "the principle of the equal right of both halves of the human race," as "the true democratic principle which can never be seriously controverted, and only for a short time evaded."* Upon the fallacy of a supposed acquiescence of the sex in existing political arrangements she is particularly explicit.

"This acquiescence is only partial; and, to give any semblance of strength to the plea, the acquiescence must be complete. *I, for one, do not acquiesce.* I declare that whatever obedience I yield to the laws of the society in which I live is a matter between, not the community and myself, but my judgment and my will. Any punishment inflicted on me for the breach of the laws, I should regard as so much gratuitous injury; for to those laws I have never, actually or virtually, assented. I know that there are women in England who agree with me in this. I know that there are women in America who agree with me in this. The plea of acquiescence is invalidated by us."—Vol. II. p. 152.

What her views are about community, or, as we presume it should rather be called, abolition, of property, is not made altogether clear. "There is," however, "no way of securing perfect social liberty on democratic principles, but by community of property;" and the Shakers are, in this matter, to be regarded as the pioneers of society.

* In connexion with this subject, Miss Martineau (Vol. II. p. 229) warmly resents a supposed want of respect on our part, on a former occasion, when nothing was further from our minds. We really supposed ourselves to be using the most harmless and civil pleasantry in the world.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"If there had been no celibacy among them, they would probably have been far more wealthy than they are; the expenses of living in community being so much less, and the produce of coöperative labor being so much greater than in a state of division into families. The truth of these last positions can be denied by none who have witnessed the working of a coöperative system. The problem is to find the principle by which all shall be induced to labor their share. Any such principle being found, the wealth of the community follows of course.

"Whether any principle to this effect can be brought to bear upon any large class of society in the old world, is at present the most important dispute, perhaps, that is agitating society. It will never now rest till it has been made matter of experiment." — Vol. I. p. 312.

We congratulate ourselves, at least, that the experiment is to be tried in the "old world," instead of this. We are content here, for the most part, with living in the good old Christian way of "a state of division into families," with our own wives, children, and household stuff. The economist who should have not only asserted, but proved, that "the expenses of living in community" are "much less, and the produce of coöperative labor much greater," would hardly have satisfied us that it was best to give up the advantages of domestic association, and be turned into one great work-house. We should be pained to hear that Miss Martineau's recommendation had even prevailed to a trial of the experiment in the other continent.

It would be unreasonable to expect that Miss Martineau's gifts at theorizing, as exhibited in the production of such fruits as these, will secure the confidence of intelligent minds to her partial recommendation of some of our institutions, as agreeing with her notions of what a frame of society ought to be. And should they turn, unwarned, from these to her statement of facts, a precious chance for continuing united or free, will they find reason to conclude that we of this nation have. With a country composed of sections inveterately hostile to one another, — mobs habitually overbearing law, — newspapers and political aspirants universally corrupting opinion among a people eager to be corrupted, (for, — a point to which we did not advert in its place, — the people may have "honest orators" as well as newspapers, "*if they choose* to demand to hear the truth,") — a clergy poisoning by their easy doctrine, and their sycophantic example, the sources of all sound principle, — every citizen standing in fear of every other, and especially

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the better apprehensive of the worse, — it will be pretty safe to say, that our days are not only numbered, but that it will cost small waste of figures to count them. Our comfort is in the hope, that such persons will consider a little the evidence which they have already had of a mind incapable of making satisfactory observations of any kind; and if they will be patient, we will give them a little more. We will take a few instances from the last part of the book, where it seems to us, that, perhaps through the haste of coming to the conclusion, there is rather greater carelessness than elsewhere.

Religion, according to Miss Martineau, is in a low condition in America, consisting mainly in hatred to Catholics, to Infidels, and to Christians professing some different belief from the hater. But what was she looking for, which not being able to find in proper measure, she laments the absence of religion? Her standard of judgment being the wise one which follows, one perceives what degree of reliance is to be placed on the skill of her inquiry, and the justness of her conclusion.

"Religion is, in its widest sense, the tendency of human nature to the infinite; and its principle is manifested in the pursuit of perfection in any direction whatever. It is in this widest sense that some speculative atheists have been religious men." — Vol. II. p. 314.

"Perfection in any direction whatever." What! in shipbuilding, tobacco-planting, kite-flying? "Atheists have been religious men." Let our author be again advised to look to her Greek. Atheism signifies the being *without a God.* But the object of religion is a God or gods. A person denying a God may be a just man, if you will; a temperate, a generous, an humble man; but we diffidently submit that he would make an odd sort of religionist. Such uses of language are merely a subject for Sir Hugh Evans' reproof, as applied in that same scene of the "Merry Wives of Windsor," from which Miss Martineau gives a quotation in her Appendix. She will find it couched in the following concise and unequivocal terms; "Leave your prabbles, 'oman."

What is written above, it seems we are to take for an account of the principle of religion. For its practice the following is the recipe;

"The morality and religion of the people of the United States have suffered much by their being, especially in New England, an ostensibly religious community. * * * *All they have to*

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

do is, to assert their birth-right of liberty; to be free and natural. They need have no fear of license and irreligion." — Vol. II. p. 347.

And this substantially, we are told, and more like it, she got some one else to agree to. In a conversation with "a most liberal-minded clergyman, a man as democratic in his religion, and as genial in his charity, as any layman in the land," he spoke of the existence of "strong religious sensibility in the children of the Pilgrims," and asked Miss Martineau what she "thought should be done to cherish and enlarge it." Among other measures to this end, respecting which they found themselves *d'accord*, were the following;

"We proposed, that new temptations to walking, driving, boating, &c. should be prepared, and the delights of natural scenery laid open much more freely than they are: that social amusements of every kind should be encouraged, and all religious restraints upon speech and action removed: in short, that spontaneousness should be reverenced and approved above all things, whatever form it may take." — Vol. II. p. 345.

We have not the remotest suspicion whom Miss Martineau means by this clerical Solomon. We ourselves never happened to fall into company, where the removal of "all religious restraints upon speech and action," and the approval above all things of what Miss Martineau pleasantly calls "spontaneousness," "whatever form it may take," was recommended as a specific for the culture of the religious character. — Shall we tell our poor thought upon this matter? It serves us on other occasions, which occur in these volumes. It is, that this liberal-minded clergyman was less of a Solomon than a Job. Does Miss Martineau remember a spirited design of Westall, prefixed to the poem entitled "Conversation," in Sharpe's edition of Cowper? Nobody can better vouch than herself for the truth of the attitude, in which the poet sits in that print, so frequently must it have been exhibited to her during her visit to this country. It illustrates the following lines;

"I twirl my thumbs; fall back into my chair;
Fix on the wainscot a distressful stare;
And when I hope his blunders are all out,
Reply *discreetly*, '*to be sure*,' — '*no doubt*.'"

The second Part of Miss Martineau's work, entitled "Econ-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

omy," is prefaced by a series of sketches of scenery and life in different parts of the country, which make decidedly the most agreeable portion of her book. They are indeed written with great spirit and liveliness, showing very favorably what she can do, when she is content to let alone the philosopher and statesman, (or stateswoman, if she will have us learn to say so,) and be her graceful and quick-witted self. Other sketches, of the same nature with those which are here brought together, occur in different parts of the work. They look like leaves of a journal kept at the time; and though sometimes introduced a little *apropos des bottes*, never fail to be welcome, as well for their own beauty, as for the inferior attractiveness of the different sort of matter which they displace or relieve.

In the third Part, entitled "Civilization," one naturally expects to find the strength of the book. Here is a theme, on which it is reasonable to promise one's self that a cultivated woman will be entertaining and instructive. There is on the whole, a smooth surface, skin-deep, over this portion of the work, but altogether too free a circulation of discoloring bile beneath it. The topics here separately treated are, the "Idea of Honor," under which are arranged "Caste," "Property," and "Intercourse"; "Woman," to which division belong "Marriage," "Occupation," and "Health"; "Children"; "Sufferers"; and "Utterance."

Since "the degree of civilization of any people corresponds with the exaltation of the idea which is most prevalent among that people," and since "the worship of opinion is, at this day, the established religion of the United States," and "certainly takes precedence of that of wealth," Miss Martineau inclines to prefer the civilization of the new world to that of the old. Bad enough, however, it must be owned, is then the best; and a page or two further on, as usual, she takes occasion to gratify gainsayers of this view with its opposite, allowing that "where the honor is to be derived from present human opinion," — which was the very case in hand, — "there must be fear, ever present, and perpetually exciting to, or withholding from, action; in such a case, as painful a bondage is incurred as in the pursuit of wealth." — Under the head of "Caste," she is particularly severe upon the metropolis of New England, and especially upon its "aristocracy"; an ungentle expression, which in this connexion commonly

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

denotes those, who have not treated one with sufficient attention, and whom, therefore, one is desirous to affront. Wishing her as well as we do, we regret that she should ever have been afflicted by feelings of the painful nature which dictated the remarks in question. Such remarks are always better let alone, particularly when so many will be likely to think that they are in possession of a commentary on the tone that has been taken. If, while, in single cases, our author received, in that city, attentions by which any traveller might feel gratified and honored, her acquaintance was not as extensively sought as she may have allowed herself to expect; if there were those, who, having figured her to themselves as an *esprit fort*, to say the least, or thinking they had had enough already of English jobbers in the book-wright line, did not care to go out of their way to seek her; if there were any who, rightly or wrongly, were displeased at what they thought the bad taste of a stranger's public interference in matters of delicate and agitating controversy; if there were any, who chose, even under embarrassing circumstances, to exercise that freedom of judgment in which, it seems, Americans are so deficient, and decide for themselves on questions belonging to the obligations of hospitality, this should not have been the opening of a score to be settled by hard words; though doubtless the rebukes, now that they are uttered, have inflicted a grievous wound, as did of old those objurgations of our fair fellow-citizen, whom the French ambassador assured, that it would occasion the Emperor, his master, infinite distress to learn what a poor opinion she entertained of him. — "Property" is a nuisance, which Miss Martineau hopes bids fair to be ultimately abated in this country. In England, it is following the same course "as monarchy, which was once necessary, and is now useless, if not pernicious." "In America the process will be more rapid." We are getting "ready for the inquiry whether this tremendous incubus be indeed irremovable." — As to "Intercourse," "the manners of the Americans (in America) are the best" she "ever saw"; which is not improbable, though there are also good manners to be seen elsewhere, if one looks in the right places. We are further "the most good-tempered people in the world," which, all things considered, is no more than we need to be. What she found chiefly to object to, was the flattery which everywhere pursued and distressed her, and against which, now that she is

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

out of hearing of it, she remonstrates with the strongest aversion. "The most common mode of conversation in America" exhibits a combination, which we should have guessed beforehand was rare in any place; it is "prosy, but withal rich and droll." "In the capitals of States, men rank according to their professed intellect;" "it is refreshing in the cities to see how the veriest fops and the most solid capitalists readily succumb before men and women who are distinguished for nothing but their minds";—a state of things which, on the one hand, is not so very bad, and on the other, not so very easy to reconcile with the facts, that "it is in the commercial cities that the aristocracy form and collect"; that "wherever the appearance of a conventional aristocracy exists in America, it must arise from wealth"; and that "an aristocracy of mere wealth is vulgar everywhere."

As to "Women" in America, "their beauty is very remarkable, and their wit, no less." "They have, within the range of their activity, good sense, good temper, and good manners." "Their charity is overflowing, if it were but more enlightened." They are selfish, timid, and rude, when travelling, and at public places (the New England women least so); too often intemperate; stately, when waiting upon guests at inns; not to be trusted to live in boarding-houses; interested in religion to the prejudice of their attention to "morals, politics, and philosophy"; and visited for "lapses" with disgrace, "temporary and superficial," when compared with English retribution. Their enunciation alternates "between a whine and a twang." "The most numerous and the worst pedants are middle-aged ladies." "While woman's intellect is confined, her morals crushed, her health ruined, her weaknesses encouraged, and her strength punished, she is told that her lot is cast in the paradise of woman." Her "business" (horrible to tell!) is "wifely and motherly occupation." She marries at her own pleasure, but too early, and too often with mercenary views; and "any one must see, at a glance, that, if men and women marry those whom they do not love, they must love those whom they do not marry." On the other hand, she is not easily enough divorced, the *beau idéal* of "marriage arrangements" being found in the canton of Zurich, where "the parties are married by a form, and have liberty to divorce themselves, without any appeal to law, on showing that they have legally provided for the children of the marriage."

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Beautiful facility, and especially favorable to the rights of women! Hardly would the plan be more admirable, if there were *no* marrying at all. — "Health" waits to be a debtor to exercise and cleanliness. But here there is hope. "Dr. Combe's 'Principles of Physiology' has gone through several editions, and the demand of society for fresh air, and soap and water, has considerably increased in consequence."

"Children" in America are forward; but "till the United States cease to be republican, and their vast area is fully peopled, the children will continue as free and easy, and as important as they are." Withal, they are the subjects of a lenient discipline, and are remarkable for "dexterity, fearlessness, and presence of mind." In respect to children, as to other things, "the good people of Boston," are in several particulars especially at fault, being "more fond of excitement than of consistency." All children in the country, "whatever may be their views in life, are educated nearly alike up to nineteen. This is an absurdity copied from the old world, but unworthy of the good sense of the new;" a point upon which Miss Martineau had better break a lance with M. Lamartine (if she does not disdain such an antagonist), who has just been instructing the French Chamber of Deputies, to the effect, that the foundations of knowledge ought to be laid, and an elementary intellectual discipline prosecuted, substantially alike for all. "There is not even any systematic instruction given," — it is the Northern States particularly that are spoken of, — "on political morals." Is there not? We wonder what caused, for instance, such a multiplication of copies of that excellent work, the "Political Class Book."

"Some persons plead, that there is less occasion for school instruction in the principles of politics, than for an improved teaching of some other things; because children are instructed in politics every day of their lives by what they hear at home, and wherever they go. But they hear all too little of principles. What they hear is argumentation about particular men and immediate measures. The more sure they are of learning details elsewhere, the more necessary it is that they should here be exercised in those principles by which the details are to be judged and made available as knowledge. They come to school with their heads crammed with prejudices, and their memories with words, which it should be part of the work of school to reduce to truth and clearness, by substituting principles for the one, and annexing ideas to the other.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"A Sunday-school teacher asked a child, 'Who killed Abel?' 'General Jackson.'" — Vol. II. pp. 270, 271.

We should have taken for granted the authenticity of this anecdote, as well as been struck with its aptness to illustrate the point in hand, if we had not been accustomed from our youth to hear a different version of it, to the effect that a scion from a noble stock, who had presented himself for holy orders, was addressed by the examining clergyman, who wished to be indulgent in his scrutiny, with the question, "Who was the Mediator between God and man?" to which he replied, "The Archbishop of Canterbury."

Under the head of "Sufferers," Miss Martineau specifies criminals, paupers, lunatics, the blind, and the intemperate; and, like other intelligent travellers, speaks in a strain of general commendation of methods of reformation and relief, originated in this country. By "Utterance," — who would have thought it? — the Bentham word-mint must be working still, — she means neither more nor less than Literature, in which she gives good and sufficient reasons, why the Americans should as yet be only beginning to begin. Particularly, she takes care to mention, that "there is no contribution yet to the Philosophy of Mind from America," Jonathan Edwards of course never having handled a pen; "no light has been given to society from the American press on the principles of politics," the Declaration of Independence, "The Federalist," and the "Defence of the American Constitutions," being so much wasted paper; and "America has yet witnessed no creation in the arts," Washington Alston's pictures, for example, being all among things still future. As to our reading,

"Some idea of the literary taste of the country may be arrived at through a mention of what appeared to me to be the comparative popularity of living or recent British authors.

"I heard no name so often as Mrs. Hannah More's. She is much better known in the country than Shakspeare. This is, of course, an indication of the religious taste of the people; and the fact bears only a remote relation to literature. Scott is idolized; and so is Miss Edgeworth; but I think no one is so much read as Mr. Bulwer. * * * The next name is, decidedly, Mrs. Jameson's. She is altogether a favorite; and her "Characteristics of Women" is the book which has made her so. At a considerable distance follows Mrs. Hemans. Byron is scarcely heard of." — Vol. II. pp. 310, 311.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Here is a literary traveller, acquainted with literary men in America. "Mrs. Hannah More is much better known in the country than Shakspeare." So is Abulfeda better known in England than the Times newspaper. Mrs. More's "Practical Piety" has had a large circulation; but the idea of comparing the familiarity of our countrymen with her works to their acquaintance with Shakspeare, is of the most preposterous kind; and if our use of the religious writings of England, on the one hand, and of its older literature, on the other, was to be brought into question, Miss Martineau, had she taken care to inform herself at all upon the subject, could hardly have failed to mention a book in many more American hands, than either Mrs. More or Shakspeare. We speak of Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress," of which more than five hundred thousand copies have issued from the American press. "Scott is idolized; and so is Miss Edgeworth; but I think no one is so much read as Mr. Bulwer." Scott and Miss Edgeworth, — in different degrees, of course, — are throughout these States the mind's food and joy of childhood, and manhood, and age; by the side of theirs Mr. Bulwer's is but an inconsiderable, inefficient, circulating-library popularity. "The next name is decidedly Mrs. Jameson's." "At a considerable distance follows Mrs. Hemans. Byron is scarcely heard of." Had the study been to make this climax face precisely in the wrong direction, it could not have been more skilfully disposed. Byron scarcely heard of! Tell it not at the Trade Sale. Publish it not by the side of the advertisements. We wonder what the three sets of stereotype plates of his works, in large octavo, which we know to have been cast in this country, were made for; to say nothing of the multitudinous editions, of which one everywhere sees specimens, on almost all shades of paper, and suited to the capacities of all shelves and all purses. If there be one writer, more than all others, responsible for the freaks and follies and sins of our young people for the last twenty years, it is that same unheard of George Gordon, Lord Byron. From whom else were learned that skepticism unable to render a reason, that scowling gloom perpetually and sorely tasked to keep up its character, that admiration for persons sustaining to society the reputable relations of the bandit, and the bandit's unwedded love, which a few years ago, — for we grant that the fashion is rather pass-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ing by, — were professed by so many youth, brought up by sober parents, in an honest way, and having not an enemy nor a trouble in the world, to make a reasonable subject for their lugubrious looks and verses? We happen to know, that one publisher alone has issued between thirteen and fourteen thousand copies of Lord Byron's works. Of Mrs. Hemans's poems, there are also two or three sets of stereotype plates, and more than thirty thousand copies have been printed; while the circulation of Mrs. Jameson's writings, in whole or in part, according to the best information we can obtain, has amounted to about five thousand copies. "No living writer, however," continues Miss Martineau, "exercises so enviable a sway, as far as it goes, as Mr. Carlyle." There is much virtue in that clause, *as far as it goes*, inasmuch as, to supply this nation of fifteen millions, over which the author of the "Sartor Resartus" "exercises so enviable a sway," that work, — a work, too, which they have "taken to their hearts," and which "is acting upon them with wonderful force," — has, according to information on which we have the best reason to rely, been printed in but two editions, the first consisting of five hundred copies, and the second, after an interval of more than a year, being only twice as large.

Indeed, a writer, who meant to make facts the foundation of general strictures, was bound to use much more care in collecting them, than Miss Martineau has commonly exhibited. Sometimes the inaccuracy appears in such a way, as ludicrously to expose the folly of her pretensions to any acquaintance with the general subject under discussion; as where, in a chapter entitled the "Apparatus of Government," she represents Mr. Kendall, while "a member of the cabinet" as "giving sanction to an audacious stoppage of the post-office function," in order to get himself advanced to the office of Postmaster-General. One so wise respecting the theory of our institutions, might have been supposed to know who were the President's advisers. Any clerk, in or out of Washington, could have told her, that, except by a departure from the usage of the government, Mr. Kendall could not have been in the Cabinet before he was at the head of the Post-office, unless he had been Attorney-General, or one of the four Secretaries of State, War, the Navy, and the Treasury; neither of which offices Mr. Kendall has ever filled. — At other times, the erroneous statement has no such connexions, merely bringing out

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

a single fact with prominence for rhetorical effect. Still, if the fact was worth putting to that use, it was worth ascertaining first. Miss Martineau writes like a guide-book about the antiquities of Plymouth.

"We mounted Burial Hill; and when I trod the turf, after some weeks' walking over crisp snow, I began to feel that I might grow superstitious too, if I lived at Plymouth. Upwards of half the pilgrim company died the first winter. Fifty-one dropped in succession; and the graves of most of them are on this hill. Burial Hill was probably chosen to be a *memento mori* to the pious pilgrims; its elevation, bristling with grave-stones, being conspicuous from every part of the town. But, lest it should exhibit their tale of disaster to their foes, the Indians, the colonists sowed the place of their dead with corn; making it, for honest purposes, a whited sepulchre." — Vol. I. pp. 101, 102.

Such things are not to be found out by guess, and nobody at Plymouth could have told our author what she here records. There is but one tradition, on the spot; and that is, that the sufferers of the first winter were buried in a quite different place from Burial Hill, viz. in a bluff by the water's edge. — The misrepresentation is made particularly offensive, when it subjects exalted private character to unmerited reproach, as in the coarse charge against the author of "Home," of what is qualified as "a surrender not only of the author's noblest prerogative, but of his highest duty;" an accusation, on which, for obvious reasons, we do not dwell, and which has already been exposed in the public prints, with a particular statement of the circumstances. But what are we to expect from the memory of a writer, who, while she studies that pointed expression, which is apt to fix a thought, — be it good or bad, — in the mind, does not remember it well enough to refrain from an equally emphatic denial and condemnation of it a few pages or a few lines further on, as the case may happen to be? At the beginning of her book, Miss Martineau is on stilts high enough, one might imagine, to give her some advantage for seeing what course she was about to travel. She there lays it down very solemnly that, at the early period of independence,

"Republicanism, like that which now exists in America, was a thing unheard of, — an idea only half-developed in the minds of those who were to live under it. Wisdom may spring, full-formed and accomplished, from the head of a god, but not from the brains of men. The Americans of the Revolution looked round

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

upon the republics of the world, tested them by the principles of human nature, found them republican in nothing but the name, and produced something more democratic than any of them; but not democratic enough for the circumstances which were in the course of arising. * * * They planned something far transcending in democracy any republic yet heard of; and they are not to be wondered at, or blamed, if, when their work was done, they feared they had gone too far. They had done much in preparing the way for the second birth of their republic in 1789, and for a third in 1801, when the republicans came into power; and from which date, free government in the United States may be said to have started on its course." — Vol. I. pp. 17, 18.

"Washington was absolutely republican in his principles, but did not enjoy the strong faith, the entire trust in the people, which is the attendant privilege of those principles." — Vol. I. p. 19.

There is a page or two more of this sorry trash, (in which, by the by, our quiet, exemplary little neighbour State of Rhode Island must be amazed to find itself adduced as an illustration of "the fickleness and turbulence of very small republics";) but all is lost sight of before the chapter is finished, and on the last two pages, we learn that the danger of the Americans is, that they will not keep close enough to their first imaginations. "Their first idea was loftier than some which have succeeded;" and "the older they grow, the more must they reverence the dreams of their youth."— The later President Adams's "lot" is described as having been "that of all good Presidents in the quiet days of the republic"; and yet, — quiet as they were, to the degree of affording a solution of a President's lot, — we learn, after two more lines, that General Jackson, elected, of course, towards the close of his predecessor's administration, was "brought into office by an overpowering majority, and after a series of strong party excitements." — Nor are the principles of judgment with this lady, — unconsciously to herself, of course, — less mutable than its results. Thus she was indignant at a hostess of hers, who spoke of respecting a favorite negro "almost as much as if he had been a white"; and at New Orleans, she scarcely "refrained from walking out of the church," because the preacher instituted a similar assuming comparison; but she finds no difficulty in complimenting some of her friends, by declaring, "in several abodes in which I resided, for a longer or a shorter time, the routine of the house was as easy and agree-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

able as any Englishman's."—So she is infinitely merry, in one place, at an admonition given to a friend of hers, to "think of the example," and at the notion itself of "the effect of actions upon people's minds"; yet none the less, when she comes to treat of the American clergyman, does she urge his obligation to "discharge the duties of a citizen all the more faithfully, for the need which the public show themselves to be in of his example."—"Nothing, in American civilization," she declares, "struck me so forcibly and so pleasurably as the invariable respect paid to man as man. Nothing since my return to England has given me so much pain as the contrast there." But at Rockaway,—where we are quite sure that something must have gone sadly wrong,—she not only finds the evil existing, but recommends the repetition of it as the proper retribution and remedy. We are bound, however, in candor to say, that, in the latter case, the contempt prescribed is to be visited by the better upon the worse, and upon the bad thing done, rather than upon the doer;—that is, we suppose, if a way can be devised to show such a nicely discriminating contempt.

"The brand of contempt should be fixed upon any unprincipled or false-principled style of manners, in a community based upon avowed principles. The contempt thus inflicted upon the mode may possibly save the persons who would otherwise render themselves liable to it. The practice of ostentation may be lessened in America, as that of suicide was in France, by ridicule and contempt."—Vol. II. p. 217.

The old admiral, in the novel, drew a character thus; "I assure you he is a clever fellow,—that is, when I say, clever fellow, I mean nothing of the sort;—but you comprehend." Is Miss Martineau proposing a similar compliment to the intelligence of her readers? Or is it simply, that not exerting, as she writes, that attention, on which the philosophers say that memory depends, her memory plays her false?

When the retrospective glance of man's "large discourse, looking before and after," is so dim, its forward ken is not commonly found altogether sure and searching. Miss Martineau, doubtless, values herself most upon the latter faculty, both because it is of a higher order, and because its errors are not commonly subject to such easy and decisive correction. The eminent modesty and exactness of her prescience have chanced to be most seasonably illustrated together in one re-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

mark, on a subject long familiar to her studies. Speaking of the pecuniary troubles of the period of the last war, she records, that the "local banks out of New England came to the agreement (*too senseless to be ever repeated*) to suspend specie payments." "Ever" is proverbially a long day; but the oracular sentence which declared what it was, which that long day would not bring about, was landed at New York not many days from the time of the universal crash of the banks from Maine to Louisiana. "Fears," it was long ago known, "are oft prophetic of the event"; alas, that as much may not be said of prognostics in so much pleasanter a strain.

We heartily wish Miss Martineau length of days, to grow wiser in, and write better books. Happy would it have been for her, — happy for her really well-endowed mind, and (at bottom, we still incline to believe) good heart, — if that flattery which so distressed her in America had not first so befooled her at home. She possesses a description of talent, which, had she but known what was its sphere, would have enabled her to write an uncommonly attractive book of travels. In undertaking subjects so much out of the beat of her capacities, she has but committed herself, and given pain to judicious readers. We have heard her, strangely enough, commended, for not using more, than she has done, her opportunities for collecting a scandalous chronicle. Let those thank her for that, who will. Is it so great a merit, to turn from a hospitable dwelling, and forbear to assail its peace with weapons which its hospitality gave the means to collect? On the contrary, we are compelled to say, though we have not cared to dwell upon the remark, that this want of respect for the sanctity of character is one of the painful peculiarities of Miss Martineau's work. Certain principles which she supposes to be sound, in this relation, are set forth in the last paragraph but one of her preface. They are guardedly stated. But if what they import and lead to is to be received as a lawful rule of procedure in such cases, there is an end to any meeting, in a man's own house, between one who is master of it, and a book-writing stranger. Miss Martineau has abounded in the imputation of reprehensible motives to men and bodies of high standing, for acts and practices, which only by arbitrary construction are liable to any such charge; and, to the best of our recollection, the unenviable distinction is hers, of having presented the first instances of this kind of assault. She professes to hold can-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

dor in high estimation. But candor is not the only virtue in the world. It is no virtue, it has no place, when it has not for its basis carefully ascertained truth; and, besides, there are moralists who would tell our loquaciously frank friend, that an unbridled tongue is a fierce chafer of a troubled spirit. That her book will in the end do much mischief of any kind, we are far from supposing. Things are moving on, with us in this western world, rightly or wrongly, with a force, and in a direction, which an imperfectly informed stranger's observations will do very little to check, change, or discredit. Besides, it is never worth while to ascribe great influence of any kind to incoherent writing. Plausibility without consistency, there is none; an author's inconsistencies are, to a tolerably careful reader's view, his own exposures of his own incompetence. There will be, we dare say, some young women of both sexes, who will think they have got hold of some transcendental political philosophy, in Miss Martineau's dogmatical abstractions; and the epigrammatic character of her rhetoric, when she thus plays the sage, may add something to its effect; for not only with habitually undiscriminating readers, but with most readers, using only the negligent attention with which books of travels are commonly perused, pointed expression is apt to create some presumption of knowledge and sense on the part of the writer. But the intelligent are aware, that a confident way of uttering the thoughts is an altogether ambiguous sign; since, besides those who see the whole of a subject, there are no less than two other classes of writers addicted to the use of pointed language; viz. those who see nothing whatever beyond one side of a subject, who write when "so ignorant as not to know how ignorant they are," and those who assume a blustering tone, to disguise that deficiency of information and indefiniteness of thought, the embarrassing consciousness of which they cannot themselves escape. Crabbe tells us of one of his characters, who "put his anger on to hide his shame"; so many a fair-seeming philosopher puts on a swaggering positiveness of phrase, to hide the faintness and tenuity of his mental apprehensions. As to the present instance, it is obvious enough, that, with great parade of thinking, Miss Martineau does not think. Thought issues in generalizations; and the generalizing process finds congruities of some kind between independent facts. A thinker concludes something. His conclusion may be right; it may be wrong; he may conclude, that nothing can be con-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

cluded ; but Miss Martineau's mental habits allow her the singular privilege (if her representations have been accompanied by thought at all) of believing a proposition, and equally believing its opposite. She finds no difficulty, on the one hand, in recommending to us, who had long ago taken some sound lessons in the school of a regulated and beneficent liberty, a system of politics, which forty years ago was fully tried and found wanting, in France, making that beautiful country for the time a den of savages ; while on the other hand, she enters into elaborate statements, for the benefit of the friends of hereditary and military rule, showing that the experiment of free institutions, which the good and wise of the world have been watching with intense hope, has with us shamefully and desperately failed. Bad advice to us must come with some more winning adjuncts, and a bad report of us must be sent abroad in some less "questionable shape," before either is likely to work for us any fatal injury.

ART. IX. — *The Philosophy of Human Nature, in its Physical, Intellectual, and Moral Relations ; with an Attempt to demonstrate the Order of Providence in the Threefold Constitution of our Being.* By HENRY M'CORMAC, M. D. London. Longman & Co. 1837. 8vo. pp. 564.

THIS book undertakes to teach the most important of the arts and sciences ; those of human life, considered in relation to the present and future. This is a philosophy which everybody is obliged to practise, with what success he may, and which, therefore, it behoves every one to study, and which it is our common interest that others should understand as well as ourselves. All the persons thrown together in social and economical relations, may be looked upon as performers in a great concert, in which each one is affected, — is disturbed, vexed, assisted, supported, or delighted, — with the discord or harmony of every other voice and instrument. There is no escaping from the concords and the dissonances of the numerous company. They will reach, and torment or please us ; in the most exalted positions, the remotest solitudes, and humblest pursuits. We must be auditors to the performances of the others as well as to our own ; there

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

is no retiring; all egress from this amphitheatre is barred; we can make our exit only at the conclusion of the final act; and even this is but an entrance to a new scene on another stage, where we must take the better or worse part, for which we may have fitted ourselves. The severest study of the part we are to perform, then, behooves us, and in this Dr. M'Cormac's book will render us very material assistance.

It is a time when works of this description are more than ever before called for. Men ask more than ever, that philosophy may be brought down from the skies and home to their business and bosoms; that every species of knowledge may be made to bear practically upon their pursuits and welfare. There are many branches and particular heads of this science of living; as that of the statesman, taught by Mr. Taylor; that of the young lady, taught in the "Young Lady's Friend"; that of the professional man, the merchant, the artisan; but there is much also that is common to all professions and pursuits, and it is this which Dr. M'Cormac teaches. He begins with the physical condition and relations, in treating of which he has occasion to apply much of the science of his own profession, and that of physiological studies generally, in which, as well as in moral and intellectual philosophy, and general literature, he seems to be competently versed. The plan and object of the work require it to be of a popular cast, adapted to the comprehension of the mass of readers; the author, therefore, cannot pretend to push his researches in any particular branch of knowledge, beyond the bounds already attained; but he takes the stock that is accumulated to his hand, and elaborates it into his Science of Sciences, the philosophy of living. He treats of the senses, sensation, consciousness, instinct, man's relation to the lower animals, the human organization, and the various influences upon health and life, production and consumption, as branches of the general economical system of communities, and finally, of physical perfectibility. The topics of the chapter on the influence of circumstances on the human organization will serve as an example of this part of the work, showing that he descends to practical working-day philosophy. Under this head he treats first of the bodily training of children.

"Much depends on the bodily training of children, and on the proper regulation of air, exercise, food, and clothing. Like

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

plants, they require the heat and light of the sun, otherwise they languish and deteriorate. Inadequate nourishment, foul air, want of exercise, deficient warmth and clothing, along with depressing moral influences, lead to scrofula, rickets, mesenteric and pulmonary consumption, as well as other results not less disastrous. The nutriment of children at the breast, is affected by the poverty of the parent; by sorrow, violent passions, and excess. There is no substitute for a mother's milk or a mother's care; and children brought up by hand, are apt to perish even under the parent's eye. In foundling hospitals, the mortality is prodigious. Any one who visits the institutions in which poor deserted children are maintained, will be struck with the cheerless aspect which they present. The happy relations of domestic life, and above all that of mother and child, are sadly absent. Undue restraint proves highly detrimental. When habits of repletion and indolence are fostered, they act injuriously on the developement of the frame; while excessive or premature exertion stunts the growth, and leads to imbecility and disease, if not to early death. Children are yearly destroyed by the improper exhibition of drugs. The infliction of bodily injury is one of so barbarous a nature, that it is difficult to believe that any could be guilty of it. The laws do not permit an adult to be assaulted with impunity; and why a child? Young people are often mercilessly beaten by cruel or passionate teachers, so that independent of the production of misery and disease, the temper is broken and destroyed for ever. Education, for various reasons, should not be wholly committed to public schools; the most zealous teachers cannot well equal the care and attention of enlightened parents. Domestic affections are cut off, while the influence of improper companionship is increased. It would be desirable if men of cultivated minds and feelings, could be more generally induced by increased consideration, to take charge of schools. Such would best supply the parent's place, and neutralize the disadvantages contingent on public instruction." — pp. 73 – 75.

He then remarks upon the effects of heat, cold, and moisture, or climate, and also the kind and quantity of nourishment, upon our organization and animal economy; from these he passes to diseases, of body and mind, as influencing greatly the condition of men, where, as in numerous other places, he combats phrenology. He speaks of the action and reaction between government and its subjects.

"The numbers, wealth, enterprise, and intelligence of a community, influence government, and conversely. Individuals

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

may do much, but governments by a single act, — by the facilities or the obstacles which they interpose with respect to knowledge and liberty, — can alter the relations of a whole people. Their power for working good and evil never ceases, and is almost commensurate with that of nature herself. In Turkey, blessed as it is with a fruitful soil and genial climate, the exactions of rulers leave the people miserable. The French peasantry anterior to the revolution, in order to support nature, were accustomed, it is said, to secrete a portion of the produce of their farms in caves under ground. Owing to insufficient employment, absenteeism, the imperfect circulation of capital, the low state of education, and the want of a provision for the poor, a considerable section of the British empire exhibits a state of destitution which it would not be easy to parallel. It devolves upon governments, were they adequately to discharge the trust, to secure a good education for the working classes, to attend to the interests of productive industry, and to elevate the condition of the poor." — pp. 80, 81.

Again ; the kind of employment will have some effect upon our welfare, and, not less, the degree or intensity of labor.

" Some occupations retard the developement, or distort the structure of the human frame, while others induce disease and premature decay. When children are sent to employments too laborious or too unintermitting for their tender years ; before their joints are knit, or their bones and muscles are developed ; confined, perhaps, in a close and tainted atmosphere, and debarred from the instruction, relaxation, and enjoyment required at their age, how can we expect that their physical conformation or their moral purity should remain unaltered ? They become pale, rickety, distorted, and thin ; lose the grace and symmetry of youth, and at the same time imbibe the seeds of disease and decay. Should they grow up, they do not attain the vigor or health of manhood, while their offspring are still more enfeebled than themselves. The population of manufacturing towns and districts has visibly degenerated. Unwholesome employment, foul air, deficient or vitiated nutriment, and debauchery, lay the foundation of various and destructive maladies. Pin-making, dry-grinding, stone-cutting, and the like, too often induce such, with fatal certainty. An occupation, in itself not positively unwholesome, becomes so, when persevered in to the exclusion of exercise and recreation. Tailors, weavers, milliners, and shopkeepers, are often over-tasked, and their hours of rest sadly encroached on. Every one should have a little time to devote to the society of his family and friends, to the preservation of his

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

health, and to the cultivation and enlargement of his moral and intellectual nature. The life of man is sacrificed to the unrelenting spirit of gain, yet the services which human beings owe to each other, need never prove the source of misery or oppression. Moderate exertion is advantageous, but excessive toil is not less morally than physically injurious. Thus, the well-being of multitudes is done away with, while the life-springs of existence are tainted at their source." — pp. 81, 82.

In the next place war abstracts a large portion of able-bodied men from the effective forces for reproduction, and the promotion of civilization. Emigration and colonization are also introduced by the author in this connexion, as having much to do with the civilization and economical resources of mankind, their aggregate numbers, and their exterior condition and accommodation. So again, the living have been tortured and their numbers thinned by the miserable inflictions practised by men upon their fellows.

"Every form of torture that perverted ingenuity could devise, has been employed to rack human sensibilities; death itself, that seeming climax of evil, has been perpetrated, with every accompaniment of physical and moral suffering. The fagot, the halter, the rack, the dungeon, the axe, and the chalice, bespeak the one; while persecution, slander, exile, present taunts, and denunciations of future misery, attest the other. How many have been sacrificed to avarice, superstition, envy, and revenge, or to the necessities, real or supposed, of justice? Yet man owes kindness to man; and it is not chimerical to hope, that the time may come, when none shall dare to anticipate the natural period of our dissolution." — pp. 85, 86.

The author touches upon the different occasions of the immolation and voluntary destruction of the species, as superstition, crime, war, duelling, murder, circumstances leading to suicide, and slavery.

He is everywhere enthusiastic in favor of amelioration. He anticipates the time when capital punishments will cease. He especially reprobates the infliction of punishments upon females.

"The infliction of death is more common in some countries than in others; assuredly, its frequency is a very equivocal evidence of civilization. In all despotic and demoralized states, wherever knowledge and improvement languish, this extreme penalty will be found most summary and frequent, as well as

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

attended with the most cruel accompaniments. In the East, a messenger with the fatal bowstring, has long been at once the announcement, and the expiation of the displeasure of the sovereign. To treat a political offence, of which the criminality is often a matter of mere convention, with the same severity as murder and other outrages against human nature, is to confound the distinctions of right and wrong. If crimes, which involve the well-being of the community, are only to be arrested by the destruction of the offender, then are capital punishments unavoidable; but if this be not the case, they are at once immoral and unnecessary. The most enlightened and virtuous members of every civilized community are against their perpetration; and it is easy to foresee, — thanks to the unanswerable arguments of a Beccaria, a Livingston, and a Bentham, — that at no distant period, the shedding of human blood will cease to be connected with the judgment-seat. Tuscany for a time, and Russia under the Catherines, proscribed the infliction altogether; while elsewhere, philanthropists have essayed its suppression, with varying success. The inhumanity of the practice is most conspicuous with regard to women. In this country, a year hardly elapses, in which, by a peculiar unhappiness, some are not executed. Whence this necessity; are our women more depraved than elsewhere? The infliction of capital punishment on a woman, — perhaps too, some poor, penitent creature, — is nothing less than an outrage against the sex and against humanity. Is the bosom whence we draw the life-springs of existence, on which we rest in affliction, and in the communings of affection, — is that bosom to be convulsed by the agonies of a violent death? Public executions demoralize the spectators, and render them callous to the shedding of human blood. Independent of the mental anguish and physical tortures of the sufferer, the pain that is inflicted on the better portion of the community, is enormous: the guilty and the unfeeling are indifferent, while the humane and the innocent are wrung with anguish and commiseration. The disproportion of the punishment to the offence creates a sympathy for the criminal, any thing but favorable to the interests of justice. These things afford us the strongest incentives to search into the causes of crime, and, by diminishing its amount, to lessen the frequency with the necessity, for the harrowing exhibitions of human destruction."—pp. 87–89.

Dr. M'Cormac tests the question of the necessity of capital punishments by the true criterion, the state of the sentiments, opinions, and habits of the community. It is then a practical question, that cannot be settled generally by the same code for

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

every community, but must be determined particularly in each one. If vices and crimes take a malignant and ferocious cast, as they do at seasons more generally, and in individual instances occasionally, in every community, those who perpetrate the atrocities have no claim to forbearance, and can have nothing to complain of in the infliction of death without unnecessary and wantonly inflicted pain. The only ground of clemency that can be urged in their behalf is, that their depravity amounts to a moral insanity. If an assassin is aiming at your breast with a dagger, if you have a loaded pistol at hand, what force to your mind is there in the general protestation against the shedding of human blood? If you can ward off the blow, and defend yourself without the use of a deadly weapon, you should certainly do so. The practical question is, whether you can do so; and this is a question that the party or the community attacked must judge of; the philosopher and speculative legislator can render very little assistance in the case, and the matter is of too intense interest to admit of acting upon the impressions of a distant looker on. And then, as to the danger of shocking the kindly and social feelings and sense of justice of the community by the spectacle of capital punishments, there is no doubt weight in this objection; but how would these feelings be affected, to see the malicious and fiendish murderer of a kind father, an affectionate brother, a confiding friend, passing his life comparatively in comfort, under the humane administration of a penitentiary? We ought to hope for all the amelioration of society that we can persuade ourselves is possible; but there are many cases in which it would be quite absurd to act upon a fancied, and at the best, hoped for, instead of the actual, state of things. As to the distinction in this respect between male and female convicts, mentioned by the author, it is in some degree a matter of decorum; some modes of execution would be particularly revolting in the case of a female, to all who do not adopt the notions of Miss Harriet Martineau and a few others, as to the precise kind and mode of equality with the men to which women are entitled. But waving all objection on the score of the impropriety and indecorum of the mode of execution, the question is then the same in respect to the capital punishment of women and of men, namely, the protection of the community, and the satisfying of their sense of justice, and their humanity, which

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

would seem as much in favor of capital punishment in some cases, as against it in others.

The author then instances the beneficial influence of science, literature, and the arts, especially the latter, upon the external condition of mankind, and concludes the chapter with the consideration of the action of the mind and passions upon our physical organization. It is evident that these topics must be very rapidly and superficially touched; but in each one, he professes rather to give examples by way of illustration, than to exhaust the various subjects, which are, indeed, as will be evident, inexhaustible; and all that a writer, with the widest range of knowledge at his command, can do, is to point out to his reader trains of reflection, in which the most vigilant observer, for the longest life, will always find something new.

In pursuing this course of inquiry through the first division of the work, the author is led, in conclusion, to consider the best means of securing our physical well-being, where he fervently expatiates in the contemplation of the progression and improvement of society by the benignant influence of those great causes which shape our fortunes. This part of the work is in fact nothing more nor less than a rapid glance at the leading topics of political economy, which treats of the means of supplying our wants with marketable or exchangeable things; education, currency, banking, manufactures, commerce, taxation, national debt, and the kindred topics, are all touched upon, hastily, of course, and it is not surprising that the author's notions upon some of them should be undigested, loose, and theoretical. Still he is right in sentiment and purpose, and persuasive in his argument to lead us to strive and hope for the better, though he may not, in every instance, suggest the most probable way of attaining it. Poverty, want, and misery, and the means and probability of guarding against and relieving them, occupy his thoughts, in this and various other parts of his work. And, on subjects of this description, his ardent philanthropy and sanguine anticipations for the human race, lend a warmth and elevation to his style. He says;

"Hygienic measures involve a multitude of particulars essential to the preservation of health; but the laboring classes, from the vicissitudes incident to their position, their ignorance, intemperance, and improvidence, are least able to attend to such. What more painful spectacle than to see them overwhelmed with

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

indigence on a fertile soil: or what more miserable, than that a creature endowed with the attributes of humanity, should be compelled to beg from door to door, or to consume the meanest refuse? Every working man ought to be well supplied with wholesome nourishment, clothing, and fuel, as well as with clean and cheerful habitations. Eight hours daily, should be the maximum of severe bodily labor; the remainder might well be devoted to relaxation and mental improvement. It is difficult for those not engaged in it, to imagine the consuming nature of excessive toil, or how hard it is for those who are exposed to it, — condemned to ignorance, and perhaps to discomfort, sickness, and privation, — to gain that expansion of intellect, and the enlarged benevolence, that would enable them to recognise their own best interests, and to look with sympathy on the progress of their fellows. Did the poor man's dwelling abound with the comforts for which he has a right to look, were he provided with instruction and recreation, he would be less inclined to seek the haunts of idleness and low debauchery. Why not have gardens, libraries, museums, lecture-rooms, picture-galleries, concerts, baths, and public grounds? Frequent destitution, cold, wet, and hardship, render the working-classes liable to diseases of every kind. They are indeed, the peculiar victims of plague, pestilence, and famine; and I fear that hygienic measures will prove of inferior efficacy, until society can be subjected to such modifications, as will lead to the supply of all, contingently on their own exertions, with a sufficiency of the material comforts of life, and more especially, with moral and intellectual culture. For this it is, which elevates the condition of man, and without it his position is degraded and defective. Human beings are not to be moulded at will, like the inferior animals; nor can they be raised to the station to which they should aspire, until they can comprehend the measures by which it is to be realized, and participate in their fulfilment.

"It would be a libel on the Divine government, were the exercise of our faculties inadequate to the supply of our wants. The lowest orders of creation are able to procure every thing that is necessary to their sustenance; and shall the noblest of earth's denizens be inferior in this respect to the rest? Shall he who can command the elements, and turn them to his purposes, be unfit to secure his physical well-being? This indeed is not so; man does possess every necessary requisite. If he suffer distress, it must arise from the absent cultivation, or the misdirection of his faculties. Were we provided for, like the inferior animals, by instincts, then would our developement cease. Our mental and bodily powers, and the capabilities of the vari-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ous objects presented by nature, are unexhausted and inexhaustible. Who then, shall place a limit to the improvement of our species; who shall say when the fruit-bearing earth shall produce no more?" — pp. 108 – 110.

The second division of the work, on the intellectual relations of man, brings the writer into a higher region, and to a greater distance from the proper studies and pursuits of his own profession. But he scales with fearless intrepidity the cloudy peaks of the metaphysical region, and expatiates in the dim heights of identity, space, association, complex ideas, abstraction, generalization, origin of ideas, of language, &c., not for the purpose of teaching us what was not before known, but by way of surveying our intellectual constitution, as already known, and inquiring into the objects and resources of existence in this relation, and especially, in conclusion, to explore the means of advancement. The subject of education frequently recurs in different parts of the work, as it very naturally must, in one treating of the improvement of individuals and communities. In connexion with this subject, in this part of the volume, he suggests what is often, and can hardly be too often, repeated, namely, that we should consider the whole of life as but one course of education, and accordingly, what is more specifically called education, only as the necessary initiatory instruction requisite to enable us to instruct ourselves.

"While dwelling on a subject so important, we must not omit to observe that education, indispensable though it be, forms but the initiative to that self-instruction, which it should be the business of after life to perfect. The one is the necessary complement of the other. Where there has been a good education in youth, unremitting self-instruction crowns the process. Without the former, the latter languishes; but with it, proceeds vigorously, under the combined stimulus of previous knowledge, industrious habits, and maturing faculties. The man who has been well educated, however vast the advantage which he thereby derives, is an imperfect being without the further aid of self-discipline. Neither the operation of external circumstances, the instruction of others, nor any earthly means, will otherwise suffice. The greatest benefit which education can confer, is that of preparing us for the energetic improvement of all our powers, through our own efforts. As it is, we should strive to impress the unspeakable importance of the latter, on every human being who is desirous of realizing the excellences of his nature, as the indispensa-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ble condition, without which it is impossible to secure any real or lasting progress." — pp. 297, 298.

In conclusion, the author dwells particularly upon the importance and delights of the cultivation and exercise of powers which form the subject of this part of the work.

"If there be any thing certain in our constitution, it is, that moral and intellectual enlightenment is the best guarantee for the prevention of impurity, and the formation of habits of imperturbable excellence. Hence, the necessity of the highest culture, from the earliest dawn of our capabilities, so that when the period arrives in which temptations multiply, the individual will be found unassailable; or if, unhappily, he yield, it is only for a time, for his endowments cannot be lost, and they must eventually set him above the sovereignty of earth-born passions for ever. Once the delights of moral and intellectual excellence have been graven on the heart and soul, they cannot be obliterated. It is the glorious prerogative of knowledge, that with care and attention, it cannot be lost; it is a possession for ever, which no wrongs on the part of others can take away, and from which death itself cannot separate us. It is impossible to urge too strongly, its indispensable utility in the formation of a superior character, or how amply it indemnifies us for whatever sorrows, sufferings, or privations the acquisition may have cost us. We may venture to hope, that the admirable individuals who have appeared from time to time, on the theatre of the world, have not exhausted the capabilities of humanity; and, if we may argue from the past, that there is a progression of virtue and excellence in store for us, of which the contemplation, even in advance, causes the heart to thrill and bound with joy." — pp. 311, 312.

Quitting the intellectual part of our nature, we come to the moral constitution and relations; the sentiments, affections, passions, virtues, vices, — all that is most noble, and all that is most vile, in human nature. This part of the work is the most luminous and most delightful; the author bears an authority with him here; he takes his positions with more scientific accuracy, and advances with greater security; he discourses of high moral truths and divine inspirations, and the felt and foreseen immortal destination of man, as one having experience and knowledge, and being transported and borne along with the power of his subject. The wonder is that he should, without qualification, eulogize Paley, and especially Bentham, both of whom, particularly the latter, treat of morals

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

in as cool, artificial a way, as Philidore does of chess; considering morals, no less than chess, to be a matter of mere calculation. Upon this system, if it admits moral obligation, it may be morally as obligatory on a Chinese to despatch his aged grandfather by starvation, as on a Christian to cherish him; for if the question is to be decided by a calculation of utility merely, the calculus might lead the two to opposite results. The innate moral feeling, or moral sense, or instinct, by whatever name called, — the faculty of perceiving and feeling moral distinctions and relations, must be brought into the account in the science of ethics. Not that the moral sense of every individual is a demonstrative criterion, for men would undoubtedly differ, as in matters of propriety and taste; but in the latter case this does not prove that there is not a true decorum and fitness, and a true beauty, any more than a defect of vision in an individual proves that there is no green color because he cannot see it. Men may be morally idiotic, insane, or brutish, as well as intellectually; but their insensibility or derangement does not negative the authority of the intuitive moral sentiments of a sound and healthy mind. Dr. M'Cormac maintains the importance of sentiment in the theory of morals, and thus contributes his efforts to raise the science from the degradation into which it has been sunk by heartless and superficial utilitarianism. He teaches that we must feel moral obligation, as well as calculate it. The feeling may be wrong, because the moral faculties are defective or disordered; and the calculation may be wrong from an error in fact, or in the process of reasoning; but if neither be viciously warped or perverted, the results will agree in the truth.

We will not follow the author through the divers topics of this part of his work. Of friendship, among the rest, he says,

"Whatever may be said, friendship is not common; the cultivation of the heart and understanding that leads to it, does not sufficiently abound. We should not dignify with this title, the maudlin reciprocity of the wine-cup, or the sordid intercourse of mutual convenience. Most are so engaged with their individual welfare, that they have neither time nor inclination for the higher interests of the heart and understanding. People are equally indisposed to receive, or to tender favors; suspicion repels the one, and selfishness opposes the other. The imperfect sympathies of political or sectarian partisans, can hardly be styled friendship; the scope is too limited to lead to such a result.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Nevertheless, we do not conciliate the good-will of others as we might; we expect good offices before they have been earned. The heart is too much wrapped up in itself to permit the sacrifices that create friends; we require favors in return for trifles, and are disappointed if we do not receive them. If we could but know how precious it is to give, whether we receive or not, we should be amply satisfied." — p. 341.

The author does not stop at the bourne of our present existence, but, in the conclusion, follows the soul into the mysterious infinite, to which sublunary life is the prelude.

"There is much reason for arriving at the conclusion, that the phenomenal world, — our earth, with the endless galaxies of mighty orbs, and their diversified inhabitants, — is infinitely inferior in extent and importance to the spiritual, which we cannot see, unless in so far as our inward consciousness yields us fugitive and uncertain glimpses of it. A comparison between things dissimilar, is made with difficulty; but though imperfect, it often serves to place the objects of it in a somewhat stronger light. Yet, when we reflect upon the multitudinous, and perhaps never-ending distribution of the stars, and think that each like our own, is a nursery for immortal intelligences; that it has been so, and will be so, to an extent which we are utterly unable to appreciate; when we further reflect, that this may not be the sole means to which the Deity has resorted for adding to the denizens of the spiritual universe; and when we add to these, not only that space is unlimited, but that it can oppose no obstacle to the increase of thinking beings, with the same mighty rapidity, and for ever, it overwhelms the soul with unutterable emotions. How the communication will be kept up between the creatures thus variously produced, we cannot imagine, nor is it necessary to inquire; doubtless, the all-powerful Author of their existence has regulated this with the same consummate wisdom which he everywhere displays. The common bond would seem to be one of intellect and feeling, and must necessarily, though to a widely varying degree, extend to all. In this world we are under a physical, as well as an intellectual and moral obligation; in the next, we shall be included under one which can have no boundary save that between right and wrong. Whether any delegated agencies shall subsist, it is impossible to know; that it should be so, however, is not unreasonable to suppose. If so, we may feel assured that it is exclusively for good. The production of gratuitous evil in the world to come, any more than in this, is a supposition which is adverse to all that we are able to conceive, of boundless wisdom and power, as well as to the precious conclu-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

sion at which all things point, — that every created being shall eventually go forward in a perpetual career of improvement. This is altogether irreconcilable with the possibility of permanent misery or sin; conditions not less opposed to feeling and reason, than to the visible manifestations of Divine goodness. Hereafter, as now, the highest motives to conduct will be grounded on moral truth, of which the only just criterion must be the will of God. Doubtless also, we shall be thrown, in a greater or less degree, on our own guidance, and permitted as at present, to reap the satisfaction accruing from our own approval and that of others. But what pen can adequately enlarge on the ravishing hope, the glorious expectation of a future, an eternal existence? To live for ever, — to increase unceasingly in knowledge and excellence, and to maintain perpetual communion with wisdom and goodness, — as much transcend the powers of man to imagine, as immortality itself transcends mortality. Doubtless, sources of happiness await us, of which, in our present state of being, we can form little conception; wonders, as much unlike any thing which we now behold, as the particulars comprehended under the latter differ from each other. This likewise enhances the expectation; for if we can picture to ourselves so much that is good and desirable, what must the reality prove? What infinite delight will there be in surveying the boundless scenes of creation, and in investigating the sources of our knowledge, and the nature of our faculities? But these are things, as to which we can have no certain knowledge. Some will go further than others; while not a few will look upon all conjectures respecting scenes so remote, as visionary and absurd. The opinion of those, however, who are so unhappy as to disbelieve or doubt on the subject of futurity, can be no criterion; and assuredly, with the well-founded conviction that we shall take our faculties and our knowledge along with us, it cannot be improper to speculate in reason, on the condition in which these may find exercise. It is a source of innocent gratification to think upon the state of our departed friends, before we rejoin them for ever. And when about to quit this world, it affords joy and satisfaction to those whom we leave behind, to hear us testify our hopes and our assurances as to the future. Were this more frequently done, it would strengthen our convictions, and confirm our principles. Certainly, the tacit consent with which all mention of death, and of the dead, is avoided, implies any thing but that rational security, and tender hope, with which we should regard futurity. Let us then be men, — let us raise our hearts and souls with implicit reverence and unbounded trust, towards the Master of life, — to Him who is Lord both of the living and the dead, and alike the wise, the just, and

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the merciful Arbiter of every form of existence." — pp. 559 – 562.

We have given a mere sketch of this work, which, though not without its faults, is of a high character as a book of practical philosophy. Its faults are a too great expansion of some topics, an occasional adventurous and rather rash theory, and a want of complete division and method, so that the author sometimes labors without advancing, and too often returns upon his track and falls into repetitions. In speaking of writers and their works, he does not always show a very discriminating and exact appreciation. These are inconsiderable imperfections in estimating the general merits of the work, which contains a vast body of just philosophical speculation upon the economy of life, in its diverse relations. It is eminently characterized by an ardent and enlightened philanthropy. The author shows throughout a lively solicitude for the welfare of every human being, and everywhere labors with untiring zeal and strong confidence for the enlightenment of the ignorant, the reclamation of the vicious, the excitement of the stupid and indifferent, the solace of the miserable, and the reanimation of the despairing. He is singularly free from conventional bigotry and sectarian prejudice, scrupulously eschews dogmatism and anathema, and speaks of errors, follies, absurdities, and faults, with a kind palliation in respect to the party infected, at the same time faithfully ministering for his disease. He inculcates pious and exalted sentiments and a pure morality, free from all censorious and cynical taint. The style of composition, though discursive and devious in places, is not unfrequently animated and brilliant. It is a work, on the whole, well calculated to accelerate the onward course of civilization.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ART. X. — 1. *The Poor Rich Man, and the Rich Poor Man*; by the Author of "Hope Leslie," "The Linwoods," &c. New York. Harper & Brothers. 1836. 12mo. pp. 186.

2. *Live and Let Live; or Domestic Service Illustrated*; by the Author of "Hope Leslie," "The Linwoods," "The Poor Rich Man, and the Rich Poor Man," &c. New York. Harper & Brothers. 1837. 12mo. pp. 216.

HAVING taken occasion, at two different times, within two years, to repeat the expression of our admiration for Miss Sedgwick's genius, and what is more, the noble use to which it is devoted,* nothing remains for us, at present, but to show that we are not unobservant of the claims, which she has been further establishing on the public gratitude. When we spoke of her "Home," we ventured to hint at the probability that its brilliant success, and unquestionably great moral influence, would encourage her to the production of other works upon the same general model; and we suggested, that "if her attention should henceforward be exclusively applied to them, she would only enhance her pure and exalted fame." In that exquisite picture of middle life, as it exists, or may exist, in this country, — and as it cannot, in all respects, exist in any other, with different political institutions from ours, — we thought we saw, that, while Miss Sedgwick had been conferring a common benefit of the first importance, she had at the same time found out her own peculiar vein, — that best good fortune which can befall an author. Holding her powers in the high estimation that we do, we may be permitted to say, that we do not think her *forte* lies in that artificial complication of plot, which is necessary to sustain the interest of a long story. Besides, it is to be said to her great praise, that her mind, in order to put forth its full strength, needs to be excited by the sense of having undertaken to impress some weighty doctrine of practical philanthropy; and all experience speaks against the attempt to enforce a single moral of any kind by a fiction extended to any great length.

Miss Sedgwick knows perfectly well what she is about, in what she has now undertaken. She surveys her whole ground;

* North American Review, Vol. XLI. p. 444. XLII. p. 160.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

she is full of resource; she understands the place and the power of every spring that she touches. She knows our people. She knows their conditions and characters, as these are determined and modified by our peculiar social institutions. She knows their wants, their dangers, their mutual misapprehensions, their powers for mutual service, their deficiencies in mutual duty, their distinctive capacities for being useful and happy, and for advancing the common welfare while each advances his own, and so realizing the aim of our political theory. And she uses her power in the spirit of a generous humanity. She has found out the secret of *levelling upwards*. In "Home" her business is with those who are not called rich, and in the two later works, it is with the poor. But she no more encourages either in a morose, discontented, suspicious pride, because they want what others have, than she allows them to regard themselves as, on that account, subject to assumption and injury on the part of those others. To all, rich, moderately circumstanced, and poor, she teaches self-respect and mutual respect. She teaches these sentiments effectually, showing, in her charming exhibitions of the appropriate characters and situations, their possibility, their reasonableness, their dignity; and exposing the delusions which may have interfered with them, till the reader wonders at the stupidity of a mind, — though an hour ago it may have been his own, — which can regard any thing as greatly respectable or desirable but worth, or fail to reverence worth, or be content with it, in any station.

We have no idea of making a single extract from these volumes. Whoever does not purchase and read them, — he and all his, — deserves not such a pleasure as that of seeing one of their pages. If any American, — in one station or another, — of this sex or age, or of that, — wishes to know something new about the way to be upright and happy, and yet something not so new, but that, once learned, he will say he ought always to have known it, let him send for these books; he, and all under his roof, and all within his reach, will be always something the better off, for his having read them. If any jaded romance-reader would have an honest natural laugh and cry, such as perchance he only remembers among his young experiences, but such as always mends the mind, the manners, and the heart, let him put by Cadurcis till to-morrow, and pass to-day with Uncle Philip or the Barclays.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

We would be the last to disparage Cumnor Place or the Castle of Udolpho; but, for the true scene of the pathetic, commend us, at present, to the back room on the second floor in Church Street, New York, where a noble woman nurses her worthless husband, and keeps up the credit and courage of the children, whom her feeble labor scarcely saves from starving. We do not love Ivanhoe, the crusader, less; but just now we find ourselves caring for Harry Aikin, the carman, more. May Dacre is a vision, of a certain gorgeousness, to haunt the thoughts; but she is supplanted in our present musings by that loveliest creation, the little servant girl, Lucy Lee. Lucy Lee, the sot's patient child, the cripple's tender sister, the abused infant's watching angel; — Charles Lovett, the brave baker's boy; — Harry, giving up his winter's schooling to earn fifty dollars, by peddling books, to enable a sick neighbour to make a journey to a physician; — match us a set of *bonâ fide* heroes and heroines, like these, from Amadis de Gaul down to Ida of Athens.

The first of the books named above, showing how to be very rich with very little, — how to be entirely respectable and happy, and abundant in resources for serving others, with only such means as day-labor can supply, and of course such as every man in this country can command, — we presume is well known to most of our readers. "Live and Let Live," the more recent tale, seeks out a class on whom far too little attention is bestowed anywhere, and who, in this country, must have a different kind of consideration from what will be given to them anywhere else. We are learning more and more, every year, how little fit the literature of England is for some of our uses. Never does it serve us less well, than when it brings into view the relation between the employer and the employed, living under the same roof; for that is all the real distinction (as far as the mere abstract relation of service is concerned) between master and domestic servant, as we call them, and employer and employed under some other name. With an Englishman, a domestic servant is, by mutual acknowledgment, an altogether inferior person; naturally enough, for the relation has been transmitted from a time when domestic attendants were vassals. Accordingly, servility is looked for, and is not grudged; and even kind advice takes the tone of dictation, without any consciousness of impertinence on the one side, or sense of injury on the other. This idea of the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

relation, of course, exhibits itself in literature, as often as the relation itself is brought to view. Take, for example, some of Mrs. More's "Cheap Repository Tracts"; admirable works, for the use intended, in England, but of very limited applicability to the same use among us, for the reason which we have named. There was an excellent little series of books, published by the English "Christian Tract Society," entitled "Tracts designed to inculcate Moral Conduct." They were republished in this country many years ago, but failed of coming into extensive use, from the same cause. A tone pervaded them, which was out of harmony with the habits of our society; so that cases might well occur, in which a present of them would be regarded much rather as an affront than as a kindness.

The English travellers and reviewers have had their laugh at our word "help," which they have imagined, however, to be in much more general use, than it is. They are welcome to their amusement. We should not object to furnishing them more of the same kind. The word is a good word. We would far rather revive than lose it. It recognises employer and employed in the same family, in the relation, in which, by whatever name denominated, they both ought to be sensible that they stand. It points us back to the simplicity of those times (times, in which most of our few peculiarities of expression originated) when a householder, finding that there was more to be done than the united strength of himself, his wife, and his children was equal to, hired the son or daughter of a neighbour, — as independent as himself, but less tasked, — to come and make a part of his family circle, and do what in the west they would call "the balance" of the work. If more artificial manners have to some extent superseded the simplicity of those times, and changed, in some degree, the form and habits of the connexion, still no change has occurred which in any degree justifies insolence on the one hand, or the relinquishment of a perfect self-respect on the other. Our domestic, in the eye of the law, is on a level with ourselves; entitled, as much as we, to any social influence and standing which his worth of character will win for him. It is matter of mutual, equal contract, that he undertakes to do for us a certain kind of labor, and we to make him a certain amount of compensation. For mutual convenience, his home is in one part of the house, and ours in another; but this is no important distinction between him, and the lawyer or the blacksmith, the governor or the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

drayman, who serves us, or whom we serve, for money, on the other side of the street. The young men and women, who come into our families from the country towns, to earn something wherewith to make a parent's home comfortable, or provide for the future comfort of one of their own, often bring an education which will cause them to do no discredit to the more prosperous circumstances, into which they are very likely to be finally brought. Having accomplished what they came for, they leave us, to be responsible and respectable members of society in the places of their origin, or wherever they go to push their fortune; in after life, they become occasional guests to us, whom it is our place and our pleasure to honor, or they offer to us the hospitality of their own homes; nor are instances wanting, in which, making their way to wealth, they become known among the most liberal and public spirited of our citizens, enrolling their names among the eminent patrons of humane objects, of religion, and of learning. Their service, too, happily, is compensated in a way, which, as far as that circumstance can go, gives them a right to independence of character. It is little to say, that there is many a domestic servant richer than his spendthrift employer. We know of those, whose pay is better than some clergymen's salaries, and they too clergymen above want.

Nothing can possibly be clearer, than that employer and employed, in this relation, meet upon perfectly equal terms, to make an honest contract, equally binding upon both. We have no right to exact from a domestic servant, any thing, in kind or degree, different from what, expressly or virtually, he engaged to do, and we engaged to pay him for. He may submit to the imposition, sooner than put himself to present inconvenience, and lose other advantages. But this is no justification to us; and the possibility that he may do so, should only make us the more scrupulous how we use our power. It was no part of the contract, that he should be overworked, insulted, or otherwise ill-treated. He did not agree that he would go without proper food, or sufficient sleep, or some opportunity to read, and see his friends, and worship God. He did not agree, that he would serve us in any thing criminal; that he would cheat, or so much as lie for us. He did not agree to be the subject of our caprice, and the butt of our ill-temper. He did not consent to come under our roof to be corrupted by our conversation, or our example, or that of any whom we should there make his associates. — But all such mat-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ters, however well-considered, belong to only one side of the duty. We have come into a relation to him, which admits of being used greatly to his present and his permanent advantage. We can further his proper objects; we can improve his character; we can help him to the knowledge of many useful things; we can put him in the way to see what a becoming treatment of others is, how mutually satisfactory it is, and how easy habit, with a little thought and arrangement, makes it; we can endeavour to exhibit to him a specimen of what he ought to desire to be, when his turn comes to have others look to him. And in doing all this, we may help ourselves to the benefit, excellently well worth having, which is contemplated in Miss Sedgwick's motto; "Whereas the Turkish spy says he kept no servant because he would not have an enemy in his house, *I hired mine because I would have a friend.*"

But we did not mean to preach a sermon about this thing. We should only be doing very tamely what Miss Sedgwick has done very effectively, in a story full of life and power, in recounting the adventures of Lucy Lee, a gentle, patient, bright, heroic creature, who, teaching and learning good wherever she goes, passes successively under the power of the exacting, rule-worshipping Mrs. Broadson, the well-disposed, but inconsiderate, incompetent, and always afflicted Mrs. Ardley, the notable, managing, and trickish Mrs. Simson, the loving and upright, but too easy Mrs. Lovett, the lofty, fashion-enslaved and fashion-hardened Mrs. Hartell, and the pattern Mrs. Hyde, — till at last she settles down as the deserving, happy wife of an honest man. Let us assure our fair friends, the young housekeepers, that here, in the form of an hour's delightful reading, they have a directory for the rule of that world of infinite interests, their home, which will effectually help them to become the blessings they intend to be to their husbands, their children, and their humbler friends; and which, well-followed, will keep the wrinkles from their sunny brows for many a year, after what is falsely called the course of nature has ploughed them deep down into other foreheads.

What a power is that of an intellectual woman over the condition of a people, if she does but understand the sphere of her strength; moving as she does everywhere in the recesses of society; privileged to observe the operations of thought and passion, in the scenes where thought and feeling are educated for more public action; necessarily disconnected from

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

those parties, which make men distrust and refuse instruction from one another. Who would venture to say, that there is a man in this nation, with any genius, or in any place, who is doing a patriot's work more effectively, than the lady on whose writings we have been commenting? And what a wretched folly, in any one endowed with any portion of her gifts, instead of using them with similar good judgment and to similar good account, to unsex herself for the gladiatorship of men's party strifes, or play the she-bully for the Rights of Women.

In speaking of the great worth of Miss Sedgwick's writings, in a moral and political point of view, as inculcating and exciting the self-respect and mutual respect, which make the distinctive nobility of the republican character, — that is, of the character of man, in a condition of society where he may fully act out the man,—we have implied our sense of their high literary excellence; since if her pictures were not radiantly true and vivid, they would not charm and move readers as they do. We remarked that, in this series of tales, she was working the true vein of her own power. She has also, we believe, fallen upon the vein, from which the treasures of our future literature are to be wrought. A literature, to have real freshness and power, must be moulded by the influences of the society, where it had its origin. Letters thrive, when they are at home in the soil. Miss Sedgwick's imaginations have such vigor and bloom, because they are no exotics. She paints scenes, as she has looked upon them; characters, as she has known them; the energy of passion and principle, as they have impelled or crossed each other under her own view; the pressure and the encouragement of circumstance, as American life exhibits it. She writes of minds and hearts, as they muse and beat, not in ancient Rome, nor modern Cumberland, but in the streets of our marts, and the retirement of our villages. So her own mind obtains the excitement, which nothing gives, like the sense of dealing with realities, and the consciousness of absolute possession of its object; and her readers are wrought to a warm interest by seeing themselves reflected, as in a glass,—by recognising exposures, duties, calamities, internal and external conflicts of whatever sort, which are or may presently be, their own or their neighbours'. When there is extensively a literary ambition among us, true as hers to its American office, a great step will have been taken towards the assertion of a place in the literary *Panachœis* of the nations.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Art. XI. — CRITICAL NOTICES.

1. — *Miscellaneous Thoughts on Men, Manners, and Things.* By Anthony Grumbler, of Grumbleton Hall, Esquire. Baltimore. Published by Coale & Co. 1837. 12mo. pp. 374.

The author, in the prefatory epistle to this pleasant volume, says, that it was indited more for his own edification and amusement than for the reader's; which, he adds, will the more readily be credited when he declares, that for the fifth part of a century, he hath been more a disciple of Coke's musty folios, than of Sir Walter's charming octavos; and, withal, hath more frequently turned the pages of Spenser and Chaucer than of Moore and Byron. From this revelation, in connexion with the place of publication, we may, without even the credit of a shrewd guess, venture to pronounce the name of the author; to lift the vizor of Anthony Grumbler, Esq., or, as we are now speaking of a lawyer, in legal parlance, to deprive him of his new *alias*. Who else can he be, than one of the most learned lawyers that has adorned the jurisprudence of our country; one whose works have done incalculable good to the profession at home, and brought accumulated character upon it abroad? We venture to say, David Hoffman, Esq., of the Baltimore Bar; *aut Morus, aut Diabolus.*

We are glad to meet Mr. Hoffman at all times and on any subject; for he brings to every thing the rich stores of a full and accomplished mind, attempered by a conscientious heart; blending refinement with learning, and the most extensive acquaintance with the business of life with the highest purity of sentiment. His *Course of Legal Study*, which has lately passed to a second edition, was many years since examined at great length, and fully commended, in the pages of this journal; but we cannot omit the present opportunity, — having a momentary jurisdiction over the learned author, — to express our continued sense of the distinguished merits of this work, upon which, time and the approving sanction of foreign jurists have fixed a seal. If we were called upon to designate any single work, which had exercised a greater influence over the profession of the law in this country than all others, which had most stimulated the student in his studies, most facilitated his labors, and, in fine, most contributed to elevate the standard of professional learning and morals, we should unhesitatingly select Hoffman's "Course of Legal Study." This is one of the few works, which should be the indis-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pensable companion alike of the student and practitioner. And yet, from some of the thoughts of Anthony Grumbler, in the volume before us, we have been led to fear that this work had not received that notice or patronage from the profession at home, which we feel persuaded it has enjoyed abroad, and which we know it richly deserves. Mr. Grumbler seems to allude to this, in the solicitude which he has expressed about the present book, and the farewell to it, which forms its concluding page.

"We are, moreover, somewhat solicitous for a peep into futurity, that we may divine whether this little volume shall be *in esse* a year hence; whether it shall attain unto the dignity of another edition; or, whether it be destined to expire with its first breath. We have some hope it may live to boyhood, if not to man's estate; but *only because* we remember what hath been said of Rabelais, how he starved from his most learned and able work on *Physicks*, but reaped a rich harvest of recompense from his *Gargantua* and *Pentagruel;* and further, from what hath been recorded of the authors of some ponderous polyglot bibles, which paid them not for the paper, whereas others, as by the Adventures of Robinson Crusoe, of Peter Wilkins, Philip Quarrels, Baron Munchausen, *et id genus omne*, not only immortalized themselves, but enriched the booksellers and printers of their day, as well as of all ages and countries after. — And though these cases be not such, as, lawyers say, run *quatuor pedibus* with my own, yet may it be pardoned, in an author, to view these matters a little differently from the icy-hearted critics. We therefore ask, why may not the graver works of Anthony Grumbler, Esquire, be utterly forgotten, and these, his lighter pages, rescue him from hopeless oblivion? Why may not these concentrated conceits of his, be returned to, with renewed gusto, and his bookseller welcome him with the sweet sound of 'The Fourth Edition'? We would not be *aliquis in omnibus et nullus in singulis;* and having tried some grave *octavos*, expounded therein the *nodi juris*, and found them unsuited to the taste of the most of our *fraternity*, we have resorted to this small duodecimo, and augur for it a more favorable reception, as in it, fortunately, no topic can easily tire them, few of the subjects having been permitted to spread over more than a few pages. Let us then conclude with this our self-complacency, and add thereunto a little poetical colloquy between Squire Grumbler and his book; but, being no poet, it shall be in the words of old Philip Stubbes, who, more than two hundred and fifty years ago, thus communed, 'dialogue-wise,' with the child of his imaginations.

'The Author. — Well, sith thou wouldst so fain be gone,
I can thee not witholde.
Adieu, my booke; God be thy speede,
And blesse thee an hundred folde.

'The Booke. — And you also, good maister mine,
God blesse you with his grace,
Preserve you still, and graunt to you
In Heaven a dwelling-place.'"

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

We should be pleased to extract many of the good things and truths, which our author has uttered in the pages before us; but space will not permit. As our bed of criticism cannot be stretched, the patient's limbs must be lopped in order to suit its narrow dimensions. Suffice it to say, of all the great family of grumblers, with whom we have dealt, the present is the most amiable and agreeable. His satire is without ill-nature, and his complaints without peevishness. His language is gentle and polished, and his topics interesting. Many of his thoughts are highly ingenious; and the whole book forms an instructive commentary on the manners and morals of the day.

---

2. — *The Importance of Exalting the Intellectual Spirit of a Nation, and Need of a Learned Class; a Discourse pronounced before the Phi Sigma Nu Society of the University of Vermont, August* 3, 1836. By the Rev. C. S. Henry, Professor of Intellectual and Moral Philosophy, Bristol College, Pennsylvania. New York. George W. Holley. 1837. 8vo. pp. 44.

This vigorous production has already gone into a second edition; and it deserves all its success, for its scholarlike tone, and eloquent, racy style. We do not altogether agree with Professor Henry's view, on the importance of our having a learned class or caste, set apart from the rest of the community; but this is not the place to argue the question. Moreover, the opinions on political matters, particularly in the note to page 22, strike us as not a little visionary, the present state of the world considered. The author has evidently been driven to extreme, or at least exaggerated conservative opinions, by the abuses of liberty which have disgraced the last few years in this country. The great problem of this age, is not how to restore the old barrier, against the power of the people, — this would be an impossible and preposterous, even if it were not an unrighteous, attempt, — but to make the power of the people salutary, far beyond any other power, by enlightening the great mass. Even those who doubt that it can be done, must allow that its possibility is not disproved.

The discourse breathes a noble love of learning, and shows everywhere abundant marks of intellectual powers, and an exceedingly rich cultivation of them. Professor Henry is the editor of "The New York Review," a journal of which one number only has appeared, but that displays so much ability, and such sound literary taste, that the public will do well to give it an ample support. We hope Professor Henry will often enrich its pages with his rare acquisitions in literature and philosophy.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

3. — *Introduction to American Law, designed as a First Book for Students.* By Timothy Walker, one of the Professors in the Law Department of the Cincinnati College. Philadelphia. P. H. Nicklin & T. Johnson. 1837. 8vo. pp. 679.

This book is well adapted for the purposes indicated in its title-page. It is an admirable First Book for Students of Law. It is also thoroughly American. The young jurisprudent of our country, who is pursuing that "gladsome light" which his master Lord Coke has so earnestly commended, may here find a book especially written for himself, — calculated to remove many of those difficulties which peculiarly beset his path, and conducting him at once to the actual structure of American law. He should not, however, neglect the incomparable commentaries of Sir William Blackstone, whose singular felicity of style and beautiful method, by which, as in a map, the outlines of the English law are displayed, will continue to attract the attention of every student, even when much of their practical utility has gone.

Blackstone's Commentaries are invariably placed in the American student's hands, as his first book. To this there are two principal objections. The first is, that the work contains much that is antiquated and obsolete, even in England; much that is irrelevant in this country, that has never been adopted among us as law, and that is entirely uncongenial with our existing institutions. All this is so intermingled with the other parts, having a direct practical interest, that it is impossible, by any general directions, to put the student on his guard, and he is compelled to travel through the whole, wandering among the perplexed paths, uncertain where to rest. Every part of the work will be of equal importance in his eyes; and he will, perhaps, devote as much time to the antiquated doctrine of Essoins, or Trial by Battel, as to the important titles, which are applied in daily life. This may seem to be stating the case too strongly; but the reader will understand by it the force of the objection, which may be justly made to Blackstone's Commentaries, as a first book. Another principal objection is grounded on the apologetic and servile spirit in which the Commentaries are written; a spirit calculated to please some English minds, though by many of them strongly censured, but which is entirely at variance with the whole tone of American institutions and character. Perhaps much of the illiberality and aversion to reform which are manifested by lawyers, may be attributed to

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the bias which they unconsciously receive, while imbibing the rudiments of their profession from this popular work.

Mr. Walker has presented a perspicuous and condensed view of the vast subject of American law. His language has a simplicity, bordering on plainness; but it is intelligible and expressive. With more of elegance it would be a happy model of style for a didactic work, particularly for a law book. It is devoid alike of professional pedantry, and of careful refinement; but it is direct and to the purpose, and clearly conveys the author's meaning. The tone and spirit of the book are such as become our country; they are congenial with our free institutions and our expanding political character. The author has not hesitated, in attempting to teach what the law is, to declare what, in his opinion, it should be. In short, he has entered boldly into the subject of legal reform, and has made many suggestions, which at once manifest the liberality of his own views, and his acquaintance with the principles which lie at the foundation of the law. Without subscribing to all his suggestions of reform, we feel free to express our entire assent to many. The dignity of the profession is uniformly advocated, with a becoming warmth; and a high standard of professional morals inculcated.

Turning our attention from the style and spirit of the book to the subject-matter, and the skill and general correctness with which it is handled, we shall be struck, at the threshold, by the comprehensiveness and, we may add, completeness of the plan; in this respect far surpassing the valuable and authoritative Commentaries of Chancellor Kent. The work is in the form of lectures, and is divided into six Parts. The first embraces such Preliminary Considerations as appeared necessary to the understanding of what follows, and consists of lectures on the study of the law; the principles of social organization (an interesting, but in some respects, we think, old-fashioned view of the subject); an historical summary of the origin of society and government in America; also on definitions in the law, and its different branches. The second part embraces Constitutional Law, treating of the relations of the different States of the Union, the legislative department, the executive department, the judicial department, the enumerated powers of Congress, the incidental powers, and the federal and state prohibitions, constituting a bill of rights. The third part embraces The Law of Persons, under which head an interesting class of subjects is considered; corporations, partnerships, husband and wife, parent and child, guardian and ward, master and servant, executors and administrators. Part fourth treats of the Law of Property, commencing with some preliminary explanations with regard to the origin of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the right of property, and also of the feudal system, which exercised so great an influence over the law of real property in England, and treating of incorporeal hereditaments, estates with respect to their duration, estates with respect to their commencement, estates in joint ownership, estates upon condition, mortgages, equitable estates, title by occupancy, title by marriage, title by descent, title by demise, title by purchase, and, next, the subject of contracts in general, and lastly, of some particular contracts. The fifth part relates to the Law of Crimes, and treats of crimes and punishments in general; crimes under the law of Ohio; and crimes under the law of the United States. The sixth part relates to the Law of Procedure (an appropriate word imported from the French code), comprising a highly interesting view of the civil proceedings in courts of law, of Chancery proceedings, and of criminal proceedings, with some concluding reflections on the vast compass of the science, and some proposed amendments of the Constitution and changes in the law.

It will be observed, that in his general divisions Mr. Walker has followed Blackstone, who was himself a follower of Sir Matthew Hale, so far as they treated of the same subject; but in the sub-divisions he has very often left him. In the foregoing outline, the American law is completely mapped out, with the exception of International law; which, though common to all countries, may properly be embraced in a view of the jurisprudence of each country, but which Mr. Walker has omitted to treat in his work. It is, however, a branch so distinct, that it is hardly to be regretted that it was not comprehended in the Introduction to American Law.

We will not venture to affirm that the foregoing outline is uniformly filled up with critical accuracy; but we do not hesitate to say, that we have been struck by the general correctness with which it has been done, when we consider the complex and extensive nature of the labor. A vaster subject could hardly have been attempted. Some errors, growing out of a generality of expression, a forced condensation and rapidity of view, we have noticed; but they are comparatively unimportant, and we only allude to them, in order to put the author on his guard, in the publication of a second edition, and to stimulate the student to a close and watchful attention in his use of the book. Where it became necessary, in the course of his work, to refer to the local law of any particular State, Mr. Walker has very properly referred to that of his own State, where the lectures, of which the book is composed, were delivered. We regret, however, that he has not on all occasions indicated in the margin, or in

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

some other way, where and to what extent he has relied upon the local law. As it is, the student may, at times, imagine that he is reading some principles or rules of law, common to the whole union, when he is reading the local law of Ohio. Thus, in treating of the law of evidence (p. 544), the author places among incompetent witnesses all black and mulatto persons, where either party is white; thus adding to the rules, excluding testimony, another on account of color, without referring to any authority in its support, or intimating that the rule is founded in special legislation, and is peculiar to Ohio and some other States. It is certain that such a rule is utterly unknown to the common law of England, and also to that law as received in Massachusetts and most of the northern states. This is a serious defect, but should not be suffered to weigh against the great merits of the work, as a generally faithful, liberal, and comprehensive compend of American law, affording the beginner a ready introduction to the whole vast and complex subject, and imbuing his mind with that wholesome spirit of independence, which becomes an American student.

We cannot conclude this brief notice, without extracting the striking dedication of the work;

"To the Honorable Joseph Story, who equally adorns and illustrates American Jurisprudence in the several capacities of Judge, Author, and Teacher, in each of which he has no superior, the following humble effort to prepare the way for more readily appreciating his vast and various labors, is most respectfully inscribed by one who has enjoyed the good fortune of being his pupil and friend."

---

4. — *The Relation of Natural Science to Revealed Religion. An Address delivered before the Boston Natural History Society, June 7, 1837.* By HUBBARD WINSLOW. Published by the Society. Boston. Weeks, Jordan, & Co. 1837. 8vo. pp. 20.

To show the harmony between the facts of the natural world and the doctrines which Christians believe to be revealed from heaven; to show that science and religion are not enemies but inseparable friends, is the object of Mr. Winslow's address. To prove this, is doing much to prove religion absolutely, and is doing every thing to prove it to minds which are peculiarly constituted or trained. The principles assumed by the author are unquestionably sound, though we might differ from him with respect to some of the applications which he has made of them. In the wide range which he has taken, it was impossible for him to treat any single topic with thoroughness; yet he has brought

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

together many valuable suggestions and just conclusions, and has performed his task in a manner which entitles him to the thanks of the rational friends of religion. He sets out with the axiom, that God who reveals is the same being as God who creates, and therefore that a revelation truly divine must agree with the established facts of creation. Under the heads of cosmogony, geology, natural history, astronomy, natural philosophy, medical science, and chemistry, he offers considerations to demonstrate that the facts of creation do agree with the teachings of the Bible, and that the analogies between them are striking and constant. It is in the field of analogy, that we should be most disposed to differ from the writer; for we think that a few of his resemblances are rather fanciful than real, and contribute little or nothing to the support of his argument; but at the same time, we have no doubt, that the majority of them can be sustained and established.

We trust that in time our citizens will be so well convinced of the alliance between the study of natural history, and the cause of religion, morals, and refinement, that the Society, before whom this Address was pronounced, will receive more and more of their attention and liberal support.

---

5. — *Wrifford's Chirography, with engraved Writing Copies, designed as a Standard System of Instruction and Style of Hand. For the Use of Schools in the United States. Newly Revised and Published* by the American Chirographic Society. Concord, New Hampshire. Moses G. Atwood's Press. 1833.

On the subject of handwriting, most of us are willing to admit, with the dignified simplicity of Richie Moniplies, in "The Fortunes of Nigel," that we are "very conscious of some small weaknesses; there is no perfection in man." Those of our readers who were not previously acquainted with the fact, will doubtless be gratified on being apprized of the existence of the American Chirographic Society; an association, formed about ten years ago, with the laudable purpose of introducing improved methods of teaching the art of chirography into our common schools. The pupil's progress in this department has been generally referred to his own discretion, on the principle of Dogberry, that reading and writing come by nature; his instructer's conscience being fully satisfied when he had provided him with pen, ink, and paper. The members of this association were impressed with the conviction, that the only sure method of ac-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

quiring an easy and elegant style of handwriting, is that of adhering to a system; and they have adopted that of Mr. Wrifford, as the most simple and effectual one within their knowledge, and have recommended it to the public in the strongest terms of approbation.

Mr. Anson Wrifford, the author of the system in question, has been distinguished as an able and successful instructer in chirography for more than thirty years. The field of his labors may appear to many to be an humble one, as that of all instruction is too apt to be considered; but such an estimate can only be formed by those, who have never reflected on the application of this art to almost all the business of life. Mr. Wrifford began by directing his efforts to the attainment of practical results, by fixing the attention of the pupil on the formation of the various letters, separately, until the object was accomplished; instead of presenting him with a model in the form of a copy to be imitated, as a whole. This mode of instruction is so obviously in conformity with common sense, in the attainment of other arts, as well as this, that it seems almost ludicrous to regard it as peculiar to any individual; yet we are assured, by the Committee of the Chirographic Society, that the only mode of instruction which prevailed before the introduction of Mr. Wrifford's system, was the "course of random practice." However this may be, there can be no doubt that his system has been attended with entire success; and that it ought to be regarded with great favor by all who have at heart the interests of education. It is impossible to enter into a detailed account of it here, or to give an account of the various publications by which he has introduced it to general notice; but he is certainly entitled to high praise for the perseverance with which he has matured it, and the taste and judgment which have rendered it well worthy of the public favor.

---

6. — *A Discourse on some of the Diseases of the Knee-joint; delivered before the Massachusetts Medical Society, at their Annual Meeting, May* 31, 1837. By George Hayward, M. D., Professor of the Principles of Surgery, and of Clinical Surgery in Harvard University, and Surgeon to the Massachusetts General Hospital; with an Appendix, containing the Proceedings of the Society, and of the Counsellors. Boston. 1837. 8vo. pp. 54.

The occasion, on which this discourse was delivered, was one of great interest to the medical profession in this commonwealth.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

An assemblage of more than two hundred physicians, many of whom have long since passed the period of their pupilage, and been long engaged in the weighty responsibilities, which the practice of medicine involves, were met to confer together on the means of promoting the respectability and usefulness of their cherished profession. It is one of the prominent objects of the meeting, to listen to a discourse on some medical subject. Neither the character of the audience, nor the occasion of meeting invite to any display of oratory; still less, to the indulgence of theoretic speculations. Both alike call for grave and mature discussion. With great propriety, therefore, the author addresses himself to the consideration of a subject of practical interest. There is no want of such topics in medical learning; in regard to which so much remains to be known, that the best informed in the profession will be the most ready to listen to the instructions of any one who is able to enlighten them. The habits of the author, as a teacher of Surgery, and as a Hospital Surgeon, naturally led him to surgical practice for the selection of his subject; and he has chosen one of great practical interest.

The diseases of the knee-joint occur often enough, to render it highly important that every practitioner of medicine should know how to manage them; and yet they are not of such frequent occurrence, as to make it easy for those who have no peculiar advantages for the study, fully to understand them. Their character, too, is both obscure and obstinate, insomuch, as our author remarks, that "regular practitioners are often led to abandon them altogether, and the patients are consigned to the hands of those who sometimes have more boldness than skill."

A full treatise on all the diseases of the knee would demand a much longer discussion, than there was opportunity for on this occasion. Dr. Hayward therefore selected a few of the most important, as the subject of his remarks. These are, 1st, *Inflammation of the Synovial Membrane;* 2d, *Morbid Change of Structure of the Synovial Membrane;* 3d, *Ulceration of the Cartilages;* and 4th, *Disease of the Articulating Surface of the Bones.* Our limits do not admit of an extended analysis. We can only say, that the discourse presents a concise, but clear and distinct description of each of these affections, with practical directions for their treatment, drawn from the best authorities, and especially from the author's personal observation. In the treatment, particularly, we are assured that nothing is recommended, which has not been suggested or confirmed by his own experience.

The Discourse is concluded with a short, but warm-hearted

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tribute of respect to the members of the society who had deceased during the year.

"While there are many agreeable associations, connected with this occasion, it cannot fail, also, to bring with it feelings of a melancholy character. Every year takes from us some of our number; and that which has just drawn to a close has called to their final account several esteemed and respected members of our Society.

"Some of them had passed long lives with an honorable reputation; and, after having devoted themselves faithfully to the interests of humanity, were gathered, in a ripe old age, 'full of years and full of honors.'

"Others were in the vigor of manhood, rich in experience, active, faithful, and intelligent; diligently exerting the powers of their minds, and diffusing their stores of knowledge for the benefit of their fellow-men. In the midst of their usefulness, they were summoned, by an inscrutable Providence, at a moment when their lives seemed to be of the most value to the world. And others, again, were called away, when they were just entering on the great theatre of life, young, ardent, full of hope and promise; and thus were blasted in a moment the fond expectations of anxious friends. While we lament their loss, let us gratefully cherish their bright example, and honorable name." — p. 27.

We hardly need add, that the discourse does credit to the high standing of the author. It is well written, without any pretensions to fine writing; sensible and judicious; modestly performing all that it undertakes. It is not an ephemeral production, the interest of which ceases as soon as the occasion from which it arose has passed by, but is a permanent treatise, which will be a useful guide to the practitioner whenever he is called to relieve the diseases of which it treats.

The appendix gives a full account of all the proceedings of the Massachusetts Medical Society at the annual meeting, and of the Counsellors for the year preceding, so far as they are of any general interest. Such a publication is made every year. As all its transactions are thus made known to the public, it gives full opportunity to any one, who chooses, to ascertain how far the society really pursues its professed object of promoting the public welfare, by increasing the usefulness of the profession; and to what measures it resorts for this purpose. It would indeed be difficult to find any public body, of such a character and extent as this, that has conducted its affairs with a more just regard to the rights and feelings of all concerned, or that has more effectually promoted harmony and good fellowship in its own fraternity, or more honestly consulted the great interests of the community.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

7. — 1. *Discours prononcés à la Chambre*, par M. DE LAMARTINE, Député du Nord. 1835, 1836. Paris. Charles Gosselin et C^ie^. 8vo. pp. 131.
   2. *Discours sur l'Enseignement, prononcé à la Chambre des Députés, 24 Mars*, 1837. Par M. ALPHONSE DE LAMARTINE, Député de Bergues. Paris. E. Duveryer. 8vo. pp. 20.
   3. *Discours sur l'Abolition de la Peine de Mort, prononcé à la Société de Morale Chrétienne.* Par M. DE LAMARTINE. Paris. 1836. Charles Gosselin et C^ie^. 8vo. pp. 24.
   4. *Deuxième Discours sur l'Abolition de la Peine de Mort.* Par M. DE LAMARTINE. 17 Avril, 1837. 8vo. pp. 20.

ONE of the most interesting phenomena in the condition of "youthful France," is the progress of Parliamentary eloquence, and of the forms of constitutional liberty. If the ghost of Louis the Fourteenth should be allowed to enter the legislative assemblies of that nation, nothing would astonish his departed Majesty more than the liberty of speech there enjoyed at the present day. And if the Academicians, who attempted to destroy the great Corneille, were to have the same permission, they too would be astonished at a liberty of speech of a somewhat different character. The French language made the medium of the sentiments of English liberty! The French language turned to nobler uses than the gayeties of the saloon, the epigrams of the wits, the flatteries of the courtiers, or even the classical fastidiousness of the drama! Of all the revolutions in revolutionary France, this is not the least remarkable.

The speeches of Lamartine, the illustrious poet and traveller, are probably good specimens of French parliamentary eloquence. They certainly will be an honorable monument of the poet's versatile genius. In those which we have had an opportunity of reading, he discusses, and with no common ability, many matters of high import in legislation. The first discourse in the volume, whose title is placed at the head of this notice, is on the liberty of the press. It was delivered in the Chamber of Deputies, just after the atrocious attempt upon the life of the king, by Fieschi; and against the severe restrictions which the king's ministers proposed to lay on the press, in consequence of that diabolical act. The arguments would not be thought very original or very profound in the United States or in England, where they have been familiar since the time of Milton; but the great principles they declare, it would seem, are not fully acknowledged in France at

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

this day. Lamartine's discourse is a clear, able, and animated exposition of the great principles on this subject, which must sooner or later triumph over every obstacle, wherever European civilization extends. Then follow two discourses, "Sur la Conversion des Rentes," and "Sur la Liberté du Commerce," both exhibiting a practical acquaintance with public affairs, hardly to be looked for in the poetic pilgrim to the Holy Land.

The Abolition of the Punishment of Death is the subject of two discourses, delivered at the Hotel de Ville of Paris, before the Society of Christian Morals. Lamartine goes into an elaborate argument against capital punishment, in the first discourse. He does not deny that society, in its early stages, had the right of inflicting capital punishment. Society, according to him, being necessary, has all the rights necessary to its existence; and if at the beginning of its existence, and amidst the imperfections of its primitive organization, society believed the right of smiting the criminal to be the only means of preservation, it could smite him without crime, because it did it conscientiously. But he maintains, that such is not the case at present; that the punishment of death is not necessary, and that other sanctions of justice are better, in every point of view. The sanction of law, he affirms, is of two kinds, material and moral; and according as society is more or less advanced in the career of intellectual improvement, this sanction partakes of one or the other of these characters; that is, it is more material or more moral, more punitive or more corrective; the punishment inflicted by law is applied more to the body, or more to the mind. Assuming this ground, the question then arises, whether or not we have, in our present condition, abundant means, besides the scaffold, to guard society against the criminal. He maintains the affirmative, and goes into a particular detail of these means, which he divides into two general classes, material and moral forces. Having treated the subject as a matter of speculation, he appeals to history for facts, to show that crimes have diminished in proportion to the disuse of sanguinary laws. The discourse has a good deal of declamation, some sophistry, and much of mere visionary speculation, mingled with considerations of high importance. The second discourse is a reply to some opponent, and a repetition of the arguments of the first.

The discourse on Education contains many just reflections. It is mainly aimed against what he calls *special education*, that is, education for some particular occupation from early childhood. He maintains, that a general education of the mind should precede any special or professional training, and that the division of labor may be carried too far, when applied to the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

developement of the mental powers; in short, that man is not to be treated as a mere machine for money making. This is all very reasonable and very true.

The most impassioned of Lamartine's speeches, is that on the abolition of slavery in the French colonies.

---

8. — *On the Employment of the Electro-Magnet as a Moving Power; with a Description of a Model Machine worked by this Agent.* By W. B. O'Shaughnessy, M. D., Professor of Chemistry, &c. in the Medical College of Calcutta. Calcutta. 1837. 8vo. pp. 19.

It would have been natural to expect from Calcutta a case of indigo or of gum shellac, rather than a pamphlet upon a matter of science. The love of science, however, implanted in Europe, goes with the adventurer to Asia or Van Diemen's Land. Learning is, and will continue to be cultivated wherever commerce fixes the abode of the European race; and we may confidently anticipate for our successors, in the next generation, great anxiety for the arrival of the Transactions of the Royal Society of Port Jackson, or the Memoirs of the Institute of Mauritius.

No particular connexion appears to have been observed between electricity and magnetism, before the year 1819. Three years before that time, indeed, Biot, in describing the mechanical methods of developing magnetism, observes, that an electrical discharge produces magnetism, in iron, by the *blow-choc*, with which its influence is communicated. In the year 1819, however, Professor Oersted of Copenhagen observed, that the connecting wire of a voltaic circle had the power of deflecting the magnetic needle from its usual direction. From this observation, the successive labors of Oersted, Ampère, Biot, Arago, Davy, Faraday, and Barlow have produced a new science, known under the name of electro-magnetism. The first continued motion, in a rotary form, by electro-magnetism, was produced by Mr. Faraday; and to Mr. Barlow we owe the first treatise giving, in a mathematical form, a rational theory of its action. All this was accomplished within three or four years after the first observation of the existence of the electro-magnetic force; and it is not to be supposed that it escaped the sagacity of those who were investigating its laws and extending its action, to inquire whether it would be possible to derive from it a mechanical power which could be employed to any purpose in the arts. The inquiry, however, was at once met by the insignificance of the force

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

developed, which was not extended beyond driving imitation cork fishes through the water, or spinning a few strange-fashioned whirligigs. Moreover, to produce feeble motions of this kind for a short period, an expensive apparatus was required, which was rapidly destroyed by the chemical action necessary to its excitement. This appeared, obviously, fatal to any project for turning electro-magnetism to account, in the arts. But as observations have been multiplied, and apparatus enlarged and improved, a number of new experimenters have appeared, who have fallen into the hope that the new science holds matter to carry on the business of the world with; and the course of these enthusiasts is abundantly supported by the wonder-loving multitude, whose indiscriminate praise of every pretended discovery has given more pain to the truly ingenious and skilful cultivators of science and the arts, than all the neglect which they have been called upon to endure.

This class of experimenters seem to have placed their principal reliance, for success, upon the discovery of the prodigious energy of attraction which may be given to a bar of soft iron, by surrounding it with a coil of wire in connexion with the voltaic circle; and magnets have been formed in this way, capable of sustaining more than a ton weight. It has seemed to them, that an attraction, of this magnitude, might be made to move mill work and ships, and thus supplant wind, waterfalls, and steam. But it is necessary to bear in mind, in this investigation, that an impelling force, or motive power, cannot be formed from an attraction only, however intense, limited to a mere point. To form a motive power, the attraction must be exercised through a sensible space; and the power is greater, in its effect, in exact proportion as the space of its action is extended. Thus cohesive attraction, though unlimited, practically, in magnitude, seems wholly incapable of producing a motive power, useful in mechanics, from the limited sphere of its action; while the weight of bodies, acting without sensible diminution through a great range, near the earth's surface, is constantly applied to produce motion in machines. Now, magnetic attraction approaches, in the limit of its action, to the attraction of cohesion. Thus an electro-magnet, which will sustain hundreds of pounds when in contact with its poles, will not raise an ounce at the distance of half an inch; its attraction decreasing in the ratio of the square of the distance, or not varying essentially from this law.

Although most of the persons, engaged in attempts to produce a new motive power from electro-magnetism, are probably aware of the fact here stated, they do not appear to have attached to it,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

in their investigations, the importance it deserves; and this error in their estimate is perhaps to be attributed, in a degree, to the faulty language commonly employed to express the energy of magnetic attraction. Thus it is said that a magnet will raise a certain weight, when it has merely the power to suspend or sustain such weight when brought into contact with it; and can no more raise it, that is, give it motion upwards, through any assignable space, than the column can raise the edifice which it supports. Dr. O'Shaughnessy states very clearly the fact of the confined range of magnetic attraction, here recited, but he seems to regard it rather as presenting an obstacle to bringing the electro-magnetic force into continued action, than as seriously diminishing the amount of its force when made to act. Thus he says,

"It is impossible to avoid the impression, that by appropriate mechanical contrivances, this enormous and easily generated power could be made available as a mechanical force. But the difficulties which beset the attempt are many and important. In the first place, though the sustaining power of the electro-magnet be immense, the force operates through such a small distance, that the magnet which would hold up *one hundred pounds*, would not *lift one pound* at the distance of two inches; nay, of one inch." — p. 2.

Again;

"On commencing my experiments in July last, my principal object was, if possible, to apply the force *directly* to the moving of a wheel. Could this be accomplished, it seemed to me that we would use the whole of the magnetic force, unopposed by terrestrial gravitation; that we would act at the greatest possible mechanical or lever advantage; and that should one wheel succeed, a series might be so arranged together, that the maximum of several forces might be made to coöperate, so as to render a number of the small spaced magnetic powers (say 12 powers at half an inch), equivalent to *one* power acting uniformly through the whole space, say six inches." — p. 3.

Amidst the confusion and reaching to "mechanical or lever advantage" for aid, in the last paragraph, we perceive that the author rather feared that he should not produce a force acting equably, than that it would not act sufficiently.

Granting him, however, and we do this very fully and freely, all the merit of overcoming what appears to him a principal difficulty, by very ingenious contrivances; let us see what amount of power he produced. After the description of his principal machine, which would be out of place in a notice like this, he says,

"A cord was attached to the axle, made to play over a pulley half an inch in diameter, and connected with a scale. On starting the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

model, the axle lifted ten troy ounces while the wheel was revolving forty times, and a troy pound while revolving about thirty times per minute." — p. 9.

The size of the axle is given at page 6, at half an inch in diameter. Allowing for the size of the cord, we may take the pound weight to have been raised two inches at each revolution, or sixty inches, five feet, in a minute. The machine then moved with 1-6600th of a horse power! and yet the author is not without hope, that it may be applied to produce locomotion on railways. He says, p. 11,

"The application of this power to locomotive engines on railroads is the first which I anticipate. The recent treatise on locomotive machines, by the Chevalier de Pambour, makes me speak with some confidence on this point. His admirable investigations on the theory and working force of the carriages on the Manchester and Darlington railways, show that the power necessary for the pulling of one ton at the average is actually only 7½ lbs.; that is, that a weight of seven pounds, suspended over a pulley by a chord attached to the carriage, will draw the ton weight on a level railway. My first model is by experiment proved to possess one-seventh of this power; or, in other words, to have attractive force sufficient to move more than 300 lbs." — p. 11.

It was capable of drawing three hundred pounds; but how fast? Why, as we have seen above, five feet in a minute, or a mile in seventeen hours. Will this do in this railroad age? Commend us to the ox or the ass for our light dragoons, rather than to such locomotives. The "swag-bellied Hollander," floating in his *treckschuyt*, cries shame upon it.

In a short appendix to the pamphlet of Dr. O'Shaughnessy, we have accounts of attempts to produce motive power from electro-magnetism, as they have been made in London, Paris, Brussels, Turin, Albany, and Dublin. Of these several attempts, none appears to surpass that of our countryman, Mr. Davenport, who is yet, we believe, continuing his experiments at New York.

It will be perceived, by the preceding remarks, that we have no high expectations of success from any efforts which have been, or will be, undertaken to move machines by electro-magnetism *in the present state of the developement of its powers.* At the same time, the curious phenomena presented by this new science are deserving of all study and attention. In our opinion, we are not to expect any thing useful by mere changes in the combinations of the apparatus in which the motion is produced, but rather from persevering attempts to bring out, by cheap and simple means, greater quantities of the influence, or fluid, whatever it may be, by which motion is excited. Whether such efforts, so directed, can ever be successful, we make no

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

prediction. We are ready to declare, however, that waterfalls and steam seem to us to possess a vantage ground, not likely to be attained by any of the other powers to which it has been supposed that these must give place.

Many countries are traversed by rivers, whose falls furnish mill powers sufficient for all their manufacturing purposes, as now conducted. Our own country, especially in its northern and eastern parts, is abundantly supplied with these without laying the hand upon Niagara. But when, from an increase of population, that shall be required to drive the spindle and the loom, — and to such uses it must come, however loud the remonstrances of lovers of the picturesque, — it will be found, computing from a common estimate of its quantity of water, equal to the constant labor of some four or five millions of horses; a power greater than all the zinc, copper, and sulphur mines in the world, turned into charged galvanic batteries, and applied to excite electro-magnetism, will produce. And this power can be obtained merely by digging a few canals, and building a few water-wheels.

Again, in countries not possessed of waterfalls, or for purposes to which these cannot be applied, the steam-engine, strong in limb and of enduring substance, is at hand, yielding from the combustion of a bit of coal no larger than an English walnut, a power sufficient to raise a man from the pavement to the cross of St. Paul's.* Is electro-magnetism likely to furnish an equal power from equal means? For us we can see no chance for its success. It is not in the cards.

---

9. — *Giornale di Statistica compilato dagl' Impiegati nella Direzione Centrale della Statistica di Sicilia. Primo Quatrimestre.* Palermo. Presso la Reale Stamperia. 1836. 8vo. pp. 152.

This is the first number of a quarterly Statistical Journal, published in Sicily. The first article is an essay on the theory of statistics, showing the meaning of the term, and the character and limits of the science. The second is an article translated from the Edinburgh Review, on British statistics; and this is followed by short notices of several works on the statistics of

* With the best constructed Cornish engines, a bushel, 2150 cubic inches, of coal, will form steam to raise 94 millions of pounds, one foot high. Consequently one inch raises 43,720 pounds, one foot high; or 126 pounds, three hundred and fifty feet high.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Italy and Sicily. Part Second contains a tabular view of the population of Sicily, in 1831, compared with the population of 1798; tables of the regular ecclesiastics of the island, existing at the end of 1832; and a bulletin of statistical statements, drawn from England, France, Germany, &c., and embracing, not only population, deaths, &c., but every kind of public improvement, such as bridges and railroads. In running our eye over the pages of this number, we have been struck with the extent and variety of the facts, so laboriously collected by the editors, and the scientific form in which they are arranged.

---

10. — *An Elementary Treatise on Plane and Solid Geometry.* By Benjamin Peirce, A. M., University Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in Harvard University. Boston. James Munroe and Company. 1837. pp. 159.

In mathematics, no less than in politics and most other things, there are two opposing principles which greatly influence the minds of men; the desire of improvement on the one hand, and the love of old things on the other. Accordingly, there are two sects or schools of mathematics; the lovers of what is commonly called the Old Geometry, who seem to consider the postulates, definitions, axioms, and reasoning of Euclid as the only safe instruments for the discovery or proof of mathematical truths; and the students of the Cartesian analysis, and its offspring, the Differential and Integral Calculus, who value the old Geometry only because it furnishes them with certain elementary truths, which serve as the basis of their further reasonings. With the latter school, the old Geometry is one of the door-stones at the entrance of the magnificent temple of mathematical science. The former are not content to use it for this purpose. They insist upon it, that they will go no further, unless they can have this identical door-stone to walk on all the way; and they stand, striving to carry or push it along with them, and with about as much success as a man might have, who should sagaciously attempt to lift himself in a basket, or by the waistband of his own unmentionables. Nay more, they not only stand still themselves, but they will have it that their neighbours, who have gone in to the interior of the temple, are not certainly there, cannot be rigorously proved to be there; and in fact, that having once stepped from the magic stone, they have lost forthwith all power of determining whether they go backward or forward, or whether they move at all.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The author of the book before us is of the modern school. He evidently considers it to be the proper function of the old Geometry, to furnish those elementary truths which are the basis of the modern analysis. Accordingly he has given in his treatise those theories which are useful for this purpose, and no more. The book is throughout simple, thorough, neat, and concise; and, as far as we can see, leaves nothing to be desired in this branch of mathematics.

The two most striking improvements are, the "Theory of Parallel Lines" and the use of the principles of the Infinitesimal Analysis. In the theory of parallel lines, the word *direction* is used without being defined, and by this means the difficulties which have been so much talked of in this part of Geometry have been avoided. This use of the word "direction" will probably be objected to by those, who will admit nothing to be sufficiently rigorous which is not in Euclid. But in fact it would be impossible to take a single step, without supposing the reader to be acquainted with some words. A late eminent judge, when wearied with the endless definitions and explanations of a prosy advocate, is said to have interrupted him with these words; "Mr. ——, the Supreme Court of the United States may be *presumed* to know some things." The maxim is as true in Geometry as in law. If we are not mistaken, the term "direction" is used without a definition in Playfair's Euclid, in the Cambridge Translation of Legendre, and in Walker's Geometry; all excellent books. The doctrine of parallel lines as presented by Mr. Peirce, is concise, intelligible, and, in our judgment, entirely satisfactory.

The introduction of the Infinitesimal Analysis is, we think, a capital improvement. The Calculus has usually been considered to be an extremely difficult branch of mathematics; and there are doubtless many students who are sorely perplexed by it. Yet we cannot help thinking that the difficulty really lies in the manner in which the subject is presented, and not in the subject. The analogy between the circle and the regular polygon of an infinite number of sides can hardly fail to strike the mind of every student of Geometry; and it is probably because he is told that this mode of considering the subject is not sufficiently rigorous, and instructed to seek further satisfaction in a long process of reasoning, which in many cases only mystifies instead of convincing, that he finally concludes that the whole matter is a grave mystery, which it is in vain for him to try to comprehend; while if the idea which first existed in his mind had been properly developed, the whole would have been perfectly clear. It is not at all strange that a student, who, while a Freshman, has

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

been taught to distrust any particular mode of reasoning, should be startled when he finds himself called upon as a Junior or Sophomore to place entire confidence in it. And yet this is precisely the manner, in which the principles of the Calculus have been often treated. In mathematical studies, the student is always most embarrassed by the use of new methods; and it is therefore of great importance that this difficulty should be avoided as much as possible. The consideration of infinitely small quantities can hardly be dispensed with in mechanics, and the other branches of mixed Mathematics; and it is on this account important that the mind of the student should as soon as possible be made familiar with them.

As to the supposed want of rigor in this method, we cannot do better than by quoting a few words from Mr. Peirce's Preface. He says,

"There is no error; for if we suppose that there be an error which we may represent by A, since the aggregate of all the quantities neglected in arriving at the result is infinitely small, that is, as small as we choose, we may choose it to be smaller than A; and therefore, the error A is greater than the greatest possible error which could be obtained, a manifest absurdity, but one which cannot be avoided as long as A is any thing."

It is remarkable, that this very reasoning is used by writers who affect great rigor, in finding the solidity of the pyramid. If any one doubts its correctness, we know of no more fit answer than the surly remark of Dr. Johnson; "Sir, I am bound to find you in reasons, but not in brains."

We have mentioned two points, in which we think that this book is an improvement upon its predecessors. But these are not the only improvements. Every page shows the same power of condensing, and the same neatness and elegance, for which the two works on Trigenometry, by the same author, are so remarkable.

---

11. — *The Shipmaster's Assistant, and Commercial Digest; containing Information useful to Merchants, Owners, and Masters of Ships.* By Joseph Blunt, Counsellor at Law. New York. Published by E. & S. W. Blunt. 1837. 8vo. pp. 683.

This is a very good book, though of an humble order of merit. It is plain, practical, and useful; but it is merely a dry digest of revenue laws of the United States, of some of the principles of commercial law, of the commercial regulations of different countries, and of some other matters of general com-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

mercial interest. In design and execution, it is well calculated for a companion to the man of business. There is no merchant or shipmaster, who would not find advantage in owning it; and the lawyer, whose studies may have made him familiar with the substance of many of its pages, may yet find information in it, upon which he cannot readily lay his hands in any other quarter. The chapters on Exchanges, on Weights and Measures, and on the Commercial Regulations of Foreign Countries, have brought together information, which, while it is not easily accessible, is of general importance. To the clerk or young merchant, however, we particularly commend the present work. Let him make it a manual, or *hand-book*, and he will acquire knowledge, which will be of daily practical use in his business, and will impart confidence in all his operations.

This is nominally, we believe, a second edition; but the alterations and amendments which have been made in the original work, and the new matter which has been inserted, give it a title to be treated as a new compilation. The following subjects are considered and the laws or regulations relating to them systematically digested; ships, and the title to them, and their registry; navigation acts; custom-house laws; fisheries; revenue cutters; ship-owners; ship-masters; seamen; consuls; freight; general average, and the mode of adjusting it; salvage; bottomry and respondentia; marine insurance; factors and agents; the navy; pensions to naval officers and seamen; crimes affecting commerce; the slave-trade; wrecks; quarantine laws; passengers, and the laws of the different States with regard to them; pilots; bills of exchange; exchange; weights and measures; harbour regulations in the United States; commercial regulations of foreign countries. In the appendix are published the pilot law of New York, and a highly useful and interesting alphabetical table of the tariff or rates of duties, imposed by the laws of Congress, on all goods, wares, and merchandise, imported into the United States in American vessels.

We have but little confidence in works, which assume to make every man his own lawyer. Our faith in history and the large volume of human experience is so great, that we do not believe, in the present state of society, the services of any class of men can at once be superseded, and particularly those of a profession so time-honored as that of the law. Any work, therefore, proceeding on this assumption, we are disposed to attribute either to ignorance, or imposition approaching to quackery, on the part of its author. Such works, however, we have had in no small number, from the days of Giles Jacob, the "blunderbuss of law," commemorated by Pope, to the present time. But

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Mr. Blunt's volume, while it draws much from legal sources, and places within the reach of the studious man of business much that has hitherto been accessible chiefly through the medium of lawyers, makes no vulgar assumption, like that to which we have referred. Its title does not cover all its merit. Its simple profession is, that it contains "information useful to merchants, owners, and masters of ships." In the modesty of this profession, we find additional ground for confidence in the work, besides that derived from an examination of its contents.

12.—*Baccalaureate Address, delivered at the Annual Commencement of Lagrange College, June* 8, 1837. By ROBERT PAINE, A. M., President of the College. Nashville, Tennessee. 8vo. pp. 19.

THE author of this address is plainly a western man. His discourse abounds in strong feeling and generous views. His style is copious and figurative, with here and there a dash of peculiarly western rhetoric. His metaphors are not always correct, and his climaxes do not always ascend. He runs into long sentences, without always seeing his way clear out of them. Like most discourses on education, this deals largely in truisms; but its especial object is to consider the peculiar condition of the South-Western section of the Union, in relation to education, its deficiencies, and the proper way to remedy them. We are bound to acknowledge, that President Paine treats this subject with becoming freedom and boldness. The spirit of the West he is not afraid to rebuke, when it runs to excess. The guilty indulgence, which parents too often show towards their children; the false sentiments of honor, with which they inspire them; the loose and dangerous habits they allow them to form; and the pernicious or deadly consequences that follow in an academic or subsequent career, the President describes vividly and plainly, condemning conscientiously, and earnestly urging a reform. His advice to parents is dictated by sound sense, and a clear perception of duty; and his admonitions, addressed to them on many minor points of conduct towards their sons at college, are applicable to other parents, as well as the South-Western. We like his remarks on the necessity of better schools, and a more liberal patronage of colleges, whose claims upon the respect and attention of the public the President urges manfully and forcibly.

But while we like the tone and spirit of President Paine's discourse, there are some blemishes in his language, which must not

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pass unnoticed. Why will the President of a College use such an expression, as "Colleges and Universities are being thrown up"? *Are being* is an outrage upon English idiom, "to be detested, abhorred, execrated, and given over to six thousand" penny-paper editors; and "thrown up" is hardly dignified language for the establishment of a College. "She shall *wring out* her days," &c. sounds rather too much like an operation at the washing-tub. We were surprised, also, to find the President of a College using the vulgarism *to learn*, in the sense of *to teach*, four times in less than two pages. At the conclusion, the common-place personification of the vessel of state, is carried out in a style altogether more grandiloquent than tasteful.

---

13. — *An Examination of Phrenology; in Two Lectures, delivered to the Students of the Columbian College, District of Columbia, February*, 1837. By THOMAS SEWALL, M. D., Professor of Anatomy and Physiology. Washington. 1837. 8vo. pp. 70.

THE first of these lectures is occupied with a description of Phrenology. After a concise history of several attempts of the ancients to assign the several faculties of the mind to different portions of the brain, it gives a short account of Dr. Gall's discoveries, and an outline of the several organs of the brain, as now established by Phrenologists, accompanied by an explanation of the leading doctrines, and the principles upon which they rest. This is accompanied by a lithographic sketch, representing the organs in the usual manner. The descriptions, though necessarily brief, are clear and intelligible, and, so far as we can perceive, fair and impartial. No indication appears in this lecture that the author has any other object in view, than to teach phrenology to his class, as it would be taught by a confident believer in its doctrines.

In the second lecture, he enters upon an examination of the claims of phrenology. He rests his examination chiefly upon the inquiry, "How far the science is reconcilable with the anatomical structure and organization of the brain, the cranium, and other parts concerned." This course he adopts, because he regards the anatomy of the parts concerned, as the proper and only standard by which to ascertain its truth, and because the metaphysical arguments have so often been evaded, that the public mind has not been enlightened by the usual methods of investigation. The versatility of phrenology in escaping from seeming

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

difficulties in arguments of this sort is illustrated by several examples, two of which we select.

"There is a celebrated divine now living in Scotland, equally distinguished for his amiable disposition, his gigantic powers of mind, and the great moral influence which he exerts upon the Christian world. This individual, it is said, has the organ of destructiveness very largely developed, and not having any counteracting organ very large, it is contended by those who are acquainted with the fact, that he manifests his inherent disposition to murder, by his mighty efforts to destroy vice and break down systems of error. In this way he gratifies his propensity to shed blood.

"By a recent examination of the skull of the celebrated infidel Voltaire, it is found that he had the organ of Veneration developed to a very extraordinary degree. For him it is urged, that his veneration for the Deity was so great, his sensibility upon the subject of devotion so exquisite, that he became shocked and disgusted with the irreverence of even the most devout Christians; and that, out of pure respect and veneration for the Deity, he attempted to exterminate the Christian religion from the earth."—p. 36.

We regret that the author did not quote his authority for the explanations here referred to. It is true that the general fairness of his statements, throughout these lectures, aside from a knowledge of the unquestioned integrity of his character, will perfectly exonerate him in the mind of every reader from any designed misstatement. But there is such an air of extravagance in the explanations themselves, that those who are not familiar with similar specimens of ingenious ratiocination, will hardly acquit him of some, perhaps unconscious, tendency to caricature.

In the argument founded on anatomy, Dr. Sewall shows first, that there is nothing in the structure of the brain, as exhibited by dissection, to support the claims of phrenology. No phrenologist pretends to point out in the brain any divisions into separate portions, corresponding to the several organs. Secondly, he contends, that there is no such relation between the volume of the brain and the powers of the mind, as phrenology assumes; and he goes into a comparison of the magnitude of that organ in different animals, in support of his opinion. In his two next positions, he shows the difficulty of ascertaining in the living head, either the volume of the brain, or the prominence of its several parts. The skull varies greatly in thickness in different heads. Five heads are represented in the plates, presenting the extremes of these differences, from one eighth of an inch in one, to more than an inch in another. A measurement of these heads, which should give seventy ounces, as expressing the capacity of the external head, would give fifty-six ounces as the measure of one brain, and twenty-five ounces as that of another; and these dif-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ferences could not be ascertained during the life of the owner of the head. In like manner, he says, the frontal sinuses and the temporal muscles are situated over a large number of the organs, and their unequal developement in different cases must render it impossible to ascertain the degree of prominence of the brain during life. This point is also illustrated by a plate, from a head in his possession, representing a large frontal sinus, an inch in depth. The prominence of the forehead was such as to exhibit a fine appearance of many of the intellectual organs, in the natural state; but on sawing through the bone, it appeared that there was an actual deficiency in the anterior part of the brain. These are given as the stronger cases; and the author assures us, that he has skulls in his possession, exhibiting, in every intermediate degree, the same want of relation between the external size and form of the head, and those of the brain.

Some other considerations follow, and the lecture concludes with an eloquent appeal to the young men to whom it was addressed, to seek out and follow such objects of pursuit as shall lead to useful practical results, rather than to be captivated by fascinating speculations.

"Let me caution you," he says, "to distrust its application to yourselves, as well as to others, and not to rely on any native endowments you may thereby be induced to attribute to yourselves, for the stations you may aspire to in life. What rank you shall hold among intellectual men, depends on your own exertions. The mind, not less than the body, is susceptible of inconceivable improvement from the culture it receives. It is attention, fixed on proper objects of pursuit; perseverance, that never wavers from its purpose; application, steady and constant; and not the prominences of the cranium, that constitute the most striking differences among men, and which will enable each of you, not only to attain, but to deserve the highest distinctions and rewards."— p. 67.

It is no part of our purpose, to enter into an argument against phrenology. Those of our readers who are not themselves phrenologists would take little interest in the discussion, and those who are, would enjoy it no further than they should find themselves able to meet our combativeness, with their own destructiveness. In truth we attach little of importance to the whole matter. Be there as much as there may be, of truth in its pretensions, it is not in our view of half so much consequence to the world as its advocates imagine; and if it be without foundation, it is a harmless fancy that will never turn the world upside down. To those, however, who feel a stronger interest in the question, and especially to those who would see how the matter-of-fact teachings of anatomy bear upon it, we would commend Dr. Sewall's lectures. He has discussed the subject with ability; and

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

even those who are not convinced by his arguments (and it is not to be supposed that those who are already adherents of the doctrine will be) will acknowledge that he has treated it with fairness, and its advocates with courtesy.

14.—*Revue Etrangère et Française de Législation et d'Économie Politique, par une Réunion de Jurisconsultes et de Publicistes Français et Étrangers.* Publiée par M. Fœlix, Avocat à la Cour Royale de Paris. 4e Année. 1837. 7 numeros.

M. Fœlix comprises within his journal a great variety of information upon the juridical literature of the age. His list of contributors embraces many of the most distinguished names in jurisprudence, of France, England, Germany, and America. By this means and by his own laborious pen, he is enabled to furnish reviews of the leading works on all branches of civil, municipal, statute, and international law; notices of new publications; sketches of proposed reforms; accounts of law institutions, courts of law, courses of lectures, &c. We find frequent mention of the writings of American jurists, whose works are uniformly alluded to with respect, or reviewed with applause. The editor and his associates appear to be singularly candid and catholic, both in the extent of their studies and in the opinions they pronounce. Our able law journal, the American Jurist, is highly appreciated by Mr. Fœlix, and that is so much to the credit of his good judgment.

---

15. — *An Anniversary Address, on Female Education. Delivered in Paris, Tennessee.* By John R. Howard. Paris. Gates & McCowat. 8vo. pp. 15.

We must not expect novelties in an address on education. If we find just views well expressed and earnestly enforced, we ought to be content. The address before us fulfils this condition. The opening remarks, on the importance of education, are truisms, to be sure, but none the less weighty on that account. The reflections on the connexion of education with the prevalence of Christianity are good, and might very properly be pressed further than they are in the discourse. Our author says many good things, too, about the bearing of education upon schemes of philanthropy, and the enlightened administration of government; and shows, that a just education is necessary to enable man to

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

avail himself of the world around him. He proceeds to draw the line between education and knowledge; and his views in this part of the discussion are especially to the point. Upon one topic he adopts a tone of exaggeration which is not uncommon; viz. the importance of the profession of the teacher, and the gigantic talents requisite to the proper discharge of its duties. He thinks the occupations of the statesman are unimportant and insignificant in the comparison. This is pretty strong language, considering what varied and vast interests the occupations of the statesman are concerned with, and what a tasking of all the highest powers of the mind they imply. We think he attributes a little too strong an influence to the small compensation and consideration bestowed on teachers. These are not the things, or rather are not the most important things, that keep the highest minds away from this profession. A vigorous intellect longs for a contest with its equals, longs for progress, for stimulating and absorbing occupations on the great theatre of the world; and, unless otherwise directed by a strong principle of duty, seeks them on its natural and lawful stage of action. It shrinks from an everlasting contest with infant or even youthful minds. It wearies with going over and over the same dull road, removing the same obstacles, answering the same inquiries, and making little or no progress itself. The earlier parts of education will have to be attended to more at home, under the eye of parental or fraternal affection, if any important improvement is to be made. The idea of inducing the highest intellects, as a general thing, to teach the elements to young minds, is preposterous. With here and there an exception, it never has been done, and never will. Lord Brougham said "the school-master was abroad"; but Lord Brougham himself, was he abroad with him? The records of the British Parliament must answer.

---

16. — *Rich Enough; a Tale of the Times.* By the Author of "Three Experiments of Living." Boston. Whipple & Damrell. 16mo. pp. 72.

We were wanting to our duty in not noticing, at the time of their appearance, those excellent works, the "Three Experiments of Living," and "Sequel to the Three Experiments," with the high commendation they deserve. The author is one, who looks upon the perils of our money-getting and money-squandering society, with a sagacious observation, and with a benevolent solicitude which the circumstances well authorize. Her two first publications had the advantage of being perfectly

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

well timed, having been issued near to the period of the recent heavy disasters in the commercial world; and, aided by that circumstance, in addition to their uncommon intrinsic merit, have had an extensive circulation, and we do not doubt have produced substantial effects.

The present tale rebukes the folly of sacrificing, to the acquisition of money, the enjoyment of all the best things that money can buy. Howard Draper, a sensible right-minded farmer, knows when he has enough for himself and his family to be happy with, and pursues the even tenor of his way, realizing all the solid, satisfying benefits of that inestimable knowledge. James, his "enterprising" brother, having that notion of a competence, which is expressed in the well-known definition, "a little more than a man has," worries through his prosperous days, the veriest bond-slave to toils, the fruit of which he will not give himself time to use; till at last, in the endless excursiveness of his ambition, he lands himself in bankruptcy and want, and is happy to find the home of his age with the more moderate friend, whose small superfluous gains had been made to share the wreck of his own princely property. A generous man, he is never useful. A strong-minded man, he is never calm. For a long time an eminently prosperous man, he does not know what it is to taste, with a true relish, a natural pleasure. An attached brother, after the warmth of the first honest greeting, he has no time for fraternal communion. A doting father, his children are almost strangers to him. A fond husband, he tears down the house which his wife had adorned and loved, to cut up the land so as to afford another building-lot. He buys her a country paradise instead, and furnishes it with the sumptuousness which his affection dictates; but as soon as he finds time to share it with her for a few weeks, the leisure is employed in planning how to turn a cotton-mill with its water, and run a railroad through the land. He is always intending, before long, to devote to her more of his time; but, before that convenient season comes, she dies of consumption, the progress of which his other cares have not permitted him to mark, leaving him agonized with his desolation and his memories.

The plot is simple enough; but the portraits are true and vigorous as truth. There is no overdone sentiment. It is real men and women of the nineteenth century, that are treated of; and the writer speaks a word in season to many a strong and active mind, whose strength and impulse are depraving, self-wasting, and self-tormenting energies.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

17.—*Coup-d'œil impartial sur l'État Présent de l'Égypte, comparé à sa Situation Antérieure.* Paris. Béthune et Plon. 1836. 8vo. pp. 60.

Egypt possesses a two-fold source of interest. The gigantic remains of an unmeasured antiquity excite the wonder of the traveller, and the enthusiasm of the scholar. The scarcely less wonderful spectacle of a barbarous people, rising to civilization under the influence of a single great genius, a prince originally no less barbarous than they, is calling more and more attention from the great states of Christendom. The presses of Europe and America are daily sending out journals of travellers to this land of wonders. Lane's great work, in two octavos, has just reached us; and it is the most extraordinary book of the kind, that we have ever read. It is written by a man, who had qualified himself by a long course of study for the work. He made himself a thorough master of the Arabic language and literature, and visited Egypt, not as a passing traveller, but spent years in the metropolis, mingling with the society of the place, like a native. His work gives us the most minute account of the domestic life of the Egyptians, descriptions of the houses and household utensils, written with singular simplicity and clearness, and accompanied by numerous engravings, sketches of religious ceremonies, statements of religious doctrines, descriptions of costumes and customs, and a most interesting summary of the state of learning. All these matters have been taken up by this accomplished traveller at a most fortunate moment; for the old superstitions, are dying out, old customs are growing obsolete, and nearly all the institutions of Mohammedanism are giving way before the powerful influence of European civilization. Such is the crisis through which Egypt is now passing, according to Mr. Lane.

The pamphlet before us is devoted to topics, scarcely within the scope of Mr. Lane's purpose. The writer, M. Jomard, a member of the Institute, confines himself to the political and economical condition of Egypt, under the viceroy, Mohammed Ali, and in comparison with its preceding state. He considers his subject under the titles of finance, agriculture, industry, and administration. As to finance, he states the revenue at the time of the French expedition in 1799, or rather at its close in 1802, and compares it with 1822, showing an increase of one half in twenty years; the whole amount, in 1822, being over forty-seven millions of francs, or nearly ten millions of dollars. In 1833, the revenue had risen to sixty-three millions of francs, or nearly thirteen millions of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

dollars. The annual excess of the revenues over the current expenses of the government, is more than twelve millions of francs, or two millions and a half of dollars. We see, therefore, that our government is not the only one, so happy as to have an overflowing treasury; and the subjects of the viceroy, we understand, are suffering, like us, from the hard times. Whether his Highness means to divide the "surplus," we are not yet informed. The condition of the cultivators of the soil is described as very miserable, nearly as much so, as under the multiplied tyranny of the Mameluke Beys, whom the Pacha so coolly murdered, at the outset of his career; but they enjoy a regular government, such as it is.

Of the industry and commerce, M. Jomard gives a plain and intelligible account. Cotton is the most important article of export; timber and silk are among the most important imports. A short chapter follows, briefly explaining the machinery and operations of government. The next chapter is devoted to canals and roads, and the general system of internal improvement carried on by the viceroy; from which it seems that he has no constitutional scruples about the right of government to develope the resources of the country. He has also established a "monster," "an allegory on the banks of the Nile," but has him so completely under control that no complaints are heard from his Highness. This is followed by a statement of the military and naval forces of Egypt; a chapter on the administration of justice; another, on education, containing a great number of very interesting details; and the pamphlet concludes by presenting a view of the obstacles that oppose the progress of Egyptian civilization. But the author thinks, on the general estimate of probabilities, that Egypt is destined to run a brilliant and prosperous career.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

QUARTERLY LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

AGRICULTURE.

Letter to the Farmers of Massachusetts on the Subject of an Agricultural Survey of the State, by the authority of the Legislature. By Henry Colman, Commissioner for such Survey. Boston. Weeks, Jordan, & Co. 8vo. pp. 18.

A Manual on the Culture of the Grape, with a Dissertation on the Growth and Management of Fruit Trees, adapted to the Northern States. By E. Sayers, Landscape Gardener, Newark, (N. J.) Published by the Author. Boston. Whipple & Damrell. 12mo. pp. 48.

Notice on the Beet Sugar. Containing, 1st. A description of the Cultivation and Preservation of the Plant. 2d. An Explanation of the Process of extracting its Sugar, preceded by a few Remarks on the Origin and Present State of the Indigenous Sugar Manufactories of France. Translated from the French of Dubrunfant and others. Northampton. J. H. Butler. 12mo. pp. 54.

ANNUALS.

Stimpson's Boston Directory; containing the names of the Inhabitants, their Occupations, Places of Business, and Dwelling Houses, and the City Register; with Lists of the Streets, Lanes, and Wharves, the City Officers, Public Offices and Banks, and other useful information. Boston. Charles Stimpson, Jr. 18mo. pp. 314.

The New York Annual Register for the year of our Lord, 1837. Containing an Almanac, Civil and Judicial List, with Political Statistics and other information respecting the State of New York and the United States. By Edwin Williams: Eighth year of Publication. New York. G. & C. Carroll & Co. 12mo. pp. 528.

BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS.

The Writings of George Washington; being his Correspondence, Addresses, Messages, and other Papers, Official and Private, selected and published from the Original Manuscripts; with a Life of the Author, Notes and Illustrations. By Jared Sparks. Vol. I. Boston. American Stationers' Company. John B. Russell. 1837. Cambridge. Folsom, Wells, & Thurston. 8vo. pp. 586.

Memoirs, Correspondence, and Manuscripts of General Lafayette. Published by his Family. Vol. I. New York. Saunders & Otley. 8vo. pp. 252.

The Life and Services of Commodore William Bainbridge, United States Navy. By Thomas Harris, M. D., Surgeon, United States Navy. Philadelphia. Carey, Lea, & Blanchard. 8vo. pp. 254.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Biography of Elder Lott Carey, late Missionary to Africa. By J. B. Taylor, Pastor of the Second Baptist Church, Richmond, Virginia. With an Appendix, on the subject of Colonization. By J. H. B. Latrobe. Baltimore. Armstrong & Berry. 18mo. pp. 108.

EDUCATION.

A Geography of Pennsylvania. For the use of Schools and Private Families. Second Edition, with Corrections and Additions. By Rebecca Eaton. Philadelphia. Edward C. Biddle.

Peter Parley's Book of the United States; Geographical, Political, and Historical. With Comparative Views of other Countries. Illustrated by Maps and Engravings. Boston. Charles J. Hendee. 16mo.

M. T. Ciceronis de Officiis Libri Tres. Ex editionibus Oliveti et Ernesti. Accedunt Notæ Anglicæ. Cura C. K. Dillaway, A. M. Bostoniæ. Perkins et Marvin. Philadelphia. H. Perkins. 12mo. pp. 297.

An English-Latin Lexicon, prepared to accompany Leverett's Latin-English Lexicon. Boston. J. H. Wilkins and R. B. Carter, and Cha's. C. Little. & Co. 8vo. pp. 318.

Introduction to Historical Chronology. By D. Hegewiseh. Professor at Kiel, Denmark. Translated from the German, by James Marsh. Burlington. Chauncey Goodrich. 12mo. pp. 144.

Elements of French Grammar, by M. L'Homond, Professor Emeritus in the University of Paris. Translated from the French, with Additional Notes, for the use of Schools. By H. W. Longfellow, Professor of Modern Languages and Belles Lettres in Harvard University. Fourth Edition. Hallowell. Glazier, Masters, & Smith. 12mo. pp. 97.

The Mythology of Ancient Greece and Italy, for the use of Schools. By Thomas Keightley, Author of "Outlines of History," &c., &c. First American Edition, enlarged and improved. New York. D. Appleton & Co. 18mo. pp. 232.

The Boston School Compendium of Natural and Experimental Philosophy, embracing the Elementary Principles of Mechanics, Pneumatics, Hydraulics, Hydrostatics, Acoustics, Pyronomics, Optics, Astronomy, Electricity, Galvanism, Magnetism, and Electro-Magnetism, with a description of the Steam and Locomotive Engines. By Richard Green Parker, A. M., Principal of the Johnson Grammar School, Author of "Progressive Exercises in English Composition," &c., &c. Boston. Marsh, Capen, & Lyon. 12mo. pp. 229.

The Œdipus Tyrannus of Sophocles, with Notes, and a Critique on the Subject of the Poem. By J. W. Stuart, Professor of Greek and Roman Literature in the College of South Carolina. New York. Gould & Newman. 12mo. pp. 222.

HISTORY.

History of the United States, from the discovery of the American Continent. By George Bancroft. Vol. 2. Boston. Charles Bowen. London. R. J. Kennett. 8vo. pp. 468.

The Origin and History of Missions; a Record of the Voyages, Travels, Labors, and Successes of the various Missionaries, who have been sent forth by Protestant Societies and Churches. By the Rev.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

John O. Choules, A. M., New Bedford, Mass., and the Rev. Thomas Smith, late Minister of Trinity Chapel, London. Fourth Edition. Two Volumes. Boston. Gould, Kendall, & Lincoln, and Crocker & Brewster. 4to. pp. 622 and 610.

LAW.

Reports of Cases decided by the Hon. John Marshall, late Chief Justice of the United States, in the Circuit Court of the United States, for the Districts of Virginia and North Carolina, from 1802 to 1833, inclusive. Edited by John W. Brockenborough, Counsellor at Law. Philadelphia, James Kay, Jr., & Brother; Pittsburgh, John J. Kay & Co. Two Volumes. 8vo.

Reports of Cases argued and adjudged in the Supreme Court of the United States. January Term, 1837. By Richard Peters, Counsellor at Law and Reporter of the Decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States. Philadelphia. Desilver & Thomas. 8vo. pp. 674.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts. By Octavius Pickering, Counsellor at Law. Vol. XV. Boston. Charles C. Little & Co. 8vo. pp. 597.

An Inquiry into the Present State of the Remedial Law of Massachusetts; with Suggestions for its Reform. By L. S. Cushing. Republished from "The American Jurist" for July, 1837. Boston. C. C. Little & Co. 8vo. pp. 52.

A Digest of the Laws of the United States, including an Abstract of the Judicial Decisions relating to the Constitutional and Statutory Law. By Thomas F. Gordon. Philadelphia. Printed for the Author. 8vo. pp. 822.

MECHANICS AND ENGINEERING.

An Elementary Course of Civil Engineering, for the use of the Cadets of the United States' Military Academy. By D. H. Mahan. New York. Wiley & Putnam. 8vo. pp. 310.

MEDICINE, ANATOMY, AND SURGERY.

A Thesis on the Cataract, with some Remarks on the Eye. By Arthur B. Stout. Presented to the Faculty of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, of New York, for the Degree of Doctor of Medicine, April, 1837. New York. 8vo. pp. 56.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Gehenna; or Hell in Miniature, containing the Adventures and Experience of its Inhabitants; or Sketches of the History and Discipline of Windsor Prison, with appropriate Strictures, and Moral and Religious Reflections. By John Reynolds. Boston. Printed and Published by A. J. Wright; and sold by C. Stimpson, Jr. 12mo. pp. 252.

Life in a Nunnery, or the History of Anna Howard. New York. William Burns. 18mo. pp. 142.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The Theatre, in its Influence upon Literature, Morals, and Religion. By Robert Turnbull, Pastor of the South Baptist Church, Hartford, Ct. Hartford. Canfield & Robins. 18mo. pp. 58.

Proceedings of the Fourth New England Anti-Slavery Convention, held in Boston, May 30, 31, and June 1 and 2, 1837. Boston. Isaac Knapp. 8vo. pp. 124.

Remarks of Henry B. Stanton, in the Representatives' Hall, on the 23d and 24th of February, 1837, before the Committee of the House of Representatives of Massachusetts, to whom were referred sundry Memorials on the subject of Slavery. Fifth edition. Boston. Isaac Knapp. 12mo. pp. 90.

The School of Good Manners. Composed for the Help of Parents, in teaching their Children how to behave in their Youth. Revised and amended. Written for the Massachusetts Sabbath School Society, and revised by the Committee of Publication. Boston. Massachusetts Sabbath School Society. 18mo. pp. 62.

A Review of Miss Martineau's Work on "Society in America." Boston. Marsh, Capen, & Lyon. 8vo. pp. 54.

Directions for Cookery; being a System of the Art in its various Branches. By Miss Leslie, Author of "Seventy-Five Receipts," &c., &c. Philadelphia. E. L. Carey & A. Hart. 12mo. pp. 450.

Chemical Diagrams, or Concise Views of many interesting Changes produced by Chemical Affinity. By Jacob Green, M. D., Professor of Chemistry in Jefferson Medical College. Philadelphia. 24mo. pp. 90.

A Letter respecting Santa Cruz as a Winter Residence for Invalids; addressed to Dr. John C. Warren, of Boston. By Joseph Tuckerman. Boston. D. Clapp, Jr. 8vo. pp. 27.

A Letter to the Hon. Henry Clay, on the Annexation of Texas to the United States. By William E. Channing. Boston. James Munroe & Co. 12mo. pp. 72.

The Student's Account Book. By Allen Lincoln. Boston. Whipple & Damrell. New York. Scofield & Voorhies. 18mo. pp. 208.

Prize Essay on Ardent Spirits and its Substitutes, as a means of invigorating Health. By Reuben D. Mussey, M. D., Professor of Anatomy and Surgery, Dartmouth College, &c., &c. Washington. Duff Green. 18mo. pp. 65.

A Brief Narrative of the Danish Mission on the Coast of Coromandel. By Baron Stow, Pastor of the Baptist Church in Baldwin Place, Boston. Boston. New England Sabbath School Union. 18mo. pp. 126.

Practical Instruction in Animal Magnetism. By J. P. F. Deluze. Translated from the Paris edition by Thomas C. Hartshorn. With an Appendix. Providence. B. Cranston & Co. 12mo. pp. 106 & 36.

A New Guide for Emigrants to the West, containing Sketches of Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Arkansas, with the Territory of Wisconsin and the adjoining parts. By J. M. Peck, A. M., of Rock Spring, Illinois. Second Edition. Boston. Gould, Kendall, & Lincoln. 18mo. pp. 381.

A Guide to the Lions of Philadelphia. Philadelphia. Thomas T. Ash. 12mo.

A Gazetteer of Illinois, in Three Parts, containing a General View

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of the State, a General View of each County, and a particular Description of each Town, Settlement, Stream, Prairie, Bottom, Bluff, &c., alphabetically arranged. By J. M. Peck, A. M., Author of a "New Guide for Emigrants." Second Edition, entirely revised, corrected, and enlarged. Philadelphia. Grigg & Elliot. 18mo. pp. 328.

NEW PERIODICALS.

The Gentleman's Magazine, A New Monthly Publication. Edited by William E. Burton. Philadelphia. Charles Alexander. 8vo. pp 76.

The Western Emigrants' Magazine and Historian of Times in the West. Carthage, (Illinois). Printed and Published by Thomas Gregg, Monthly. 8vo. pp. 16.

The Financial Register. Philadelphia. Adam Waldie. Semi-Monthly. 8vo. pp. 16.

The Rural Library, a Publication of Standard Works on Agriculture, Gardening, and Domestic Economy. New York. S. Fleet. Monthly. 8vo. pp. 32.

The Oasis. Oswego, (N. Y.) Hull & Henry. Quarto. pp. 16. Monthly.

NOVELS AND TALES.

Tales of a Traveller. By Geoffry Crayon, Gentleman. Author of the "Sketch Book," "Bracebridge Hall," &c. &c. In two vols. A New Edition. Philadelphia. Carey, Lea, & Blanchard. 12mo. pp. 235.

Agrarian Stories. Number One. Fanny Forrester. Philadelphia. Thomas Latimer. 18mo. pp. 36.

Too Fast and too Far; or, the Cooper and the Currier. Boston. Whipple & Damrell. New York. Scofield & Voorhies. 18mo. pp. 34.

The Harcourts; illustrating the benefit of Retrenchment and Reform. By a Lady. Part III. Stories from Real Life. New York. S. Colman. Boston. Weeks, Jordan, & Co. 18mo. pp. 144.

ORATIONS AND ADDRESSES.

A Lecture on the Changes of Fashion, delivered before the Portsmouth Lyceum. By Charles W. Brewster. Portsmouth. Journal Press. 1837. 8vo. pp. 15.

An Oration delivered at Newburyport, on the Sixty-first Anniversary of the Declaration of Independence; July 4th, 1837. By John Quincy Adams. Newburyport. Charles Whipple. 8vo. pp. 68.

An Oration delivered before the Democratic Citizens of the County of Worcester, July 4th, 1837. By Robert Rantoul, Jr. Worcester. Mirick & Bartlett. 8vo.

An Oration on National Independence, (delivered by Public Request,) on the Fourth of July, 1837, at Port Gibson, Mississippi, consisting principally of a Sketch of the Rise of the State of Mississippi, from the Exploration of De Soto, in 1539, to the Present Time. By Mann Butler. Frankfort, Ky. Albert G. Hodges. 8vo. pp. 23.

An Address to the Candidates for the Degree of Doctor of Medicine, delivered at the Annual Commencement of the Medical College of South Carolina, March 15, 1837. By J. B. Whitridge, A. M.,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

M. D., President of the Medical Society, and Ex-Officio of the Medical College of South Carolina. Charleston, S. C. Walker & James. 8vo. pp. 23.

Elementary Instruction. An Address delivered before the Schools and the Citizens of the Town of Quincy, July 4, 1837. By Charles Brooks. Quincy. John A. Green. 8vo. pp. 20.

There is something new and striking in the idea of celebrating our national day of triumph, by making it the occasion of reminding school-boys and girls of their duties. Mr. Brooks' address is animated and ardent. It opens with a beautifully appropriate allusion to a late illustrious citizen of Quincy, whose piety helped to raise the temple under the roof of which the youth of the town were assembled. The question discussed by the speaker, is "How can knowledge and virtue be universally disseminated," in this country? The answer is, by means of town schools and other seminaries; not in their present condition, but with improvements, which the author proceeds to point out. He considers education under the three divisions of physical, intellectual, and moral, and shows the best and simplest means of promoting each and all. He insists earnestly on the necessity of introducing the Christian religion more effectually into our common schools, and cites the examples of Germany and England to prove its practicability. The importance of having regularly educated teachers is set forth in a strong light, and the superintendance of government, with Boards of Instruction, is invoked. The obvious consequences of such improvements are explained, and the discourse closes with observations of a general nature, and suitable advice to the youthful congregation.

POETRY AND THE DRAMA.

Melanie, and other Poems. By N. P. Willis. New York. Saunders & Otley. 12mo. pp. 242.

Essais en Vers, ou le Portrait de la Vertu, suivi d'un Eloge de Louis Philippe. A l'Usage des Écoles. "Quelques faibles ecrits, enfans de mon repos." New York. J. Booth & Son. 12mo. pp. 17.

The Christian Psalmist, or Watts' Psalms and Hymns, with copious Selections from other Sources. The whole carefully revised and corrected, with Directions for Musical Expression. By Th. Hastings and Wm. Patton. New York. Ezra Collier. 18mo. pp. 626.

THEOLOGY AND SERMONS.

These Bad Times the Product of Bad Morals. A Sermon preached to the Second Church in Scituate, (Mass.) May 21, 1837. By Samuel J. May. Published by Request. Boston. Printed by Isaac Knapp. 12mo. pp. 20.

The Times. A Discourse delivered in the Hollis-Street Church Boston, on Sunday, June 11th, 1837. By Henry Colman. Boston. Weeks, Jordan, & Co., and Marden & Kimball. 12mo. pp. 28.

The Genius and Moral Achievements of the Spirit of Foreign Missions. A Sermon preached in the Presbyterian Church, John's Island, S. C., December 18, 1836. By Rev. Elipha White, Pastor. Boston. Crocker & Brewster. 8vo. pp. 22.

The Appropriate Sphere of Woman. A Discourse delivered in the Bowdoin-Street Church, July 9th, 1837. By Rev Hubbard Winslow, Pastor of said Church. Boston. Weeks, Jordan, & Co. 8vo. pp. 16.

Letters to Young Men preparing for the Christian Ministry. By William Cogswell, D. D., Secretary of the American Education Society. Boston. Perkins & Marvin. pp. 236.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Education the Business of Life. Two Discourses preached in the Chapel of Harvard University, on the last Sabbath of the Academical year, 16 July, 1837. By Henry Ware, Jr., Professor of Pulpit Eloquence and the Pastoral Care. Published by Request. Metcalf, Torry, & Ballou. 1837. 12mo. pp. 28.

Instead of filling the small space, which remains to us, with general commendations of these eloquent discourses of one of our most distinguished divines, we shall better serve our readers by extracting the following paragraphs, as a specimen of their manner and tone.

"There is something to many minds very fascinating in the idea of learned leisure and meditative seclusion. It is pleasant to withdraw from the turmoil and rough encounter of common life to the peaceful calm of study, communing with the spirits of the departed wise in their works, rather than mingling in the ill-assorted crowd of the living. But this is to shun the responsibility which lies on every man to do something for those with whom God has placed him; this is to seek only his own good, and not that of others; this is to sink in selfishness, what was given him for usefulness; and it issues in defrauding him of that solid virtue which can grow only by exercise; it weakens the nerve, palsies the energy of his own moral nature. There is no character where there is no action. There is no virtue where all endowments are hoarded for personal enjoyment, and none offered for the participation of others.

"In seeking, therefore, the growth and perfection of your own nature, seek for, and assiduously use, opportunities for exercising that nature in active goodness. If you have surrounded yourselves with the favorable circumstances I referred to, this will be easy; your situation and connexions, your very calling, will invite you to it. But society has demands on its privileged sons beyond this. In the unsettled state of principle and manners in this growing and restless country, nothing is so greatly needed as a virtuous public spirit in the better informed classes. It is urgently necessary that they stand forward, with wise hearts and bold hands, to stem the torrent of false opinion, to uphold the honor of principle, to determine the suffrage for right, and to maintain truth and religion in their supremacy. The perils of the age, the crisis in the character of a people bursting forth in the immense range of free life with immeasurable resources and interminable numbers, are matters of common remark. The friends of truth, order, and man are anxiously awake, for something must be done. Who shall do it? Whoever else it may be, those who have been most favored with opportunities of knowledge and influence must make themselves of the number. The Sons of our Colleges must account themselves pledged to the work. They are to do nothing for themselves excepting so far as they labor in a true public spirit for the good of their generation. Let them come forward and gird up their strength for the toil. Let them remember that their advantages consecrate them to the cause of goodness, knowledge, truth, and right; to the support of the law; to the maintenance of good institutions; to the honor and spread of virtuous principle, religious faith, and the fear of God. Let them engrave on their souls, and make the motto of their life, those well known words; — "*Human happiness has no perfect security but freedom; freedom none but virtue; virtue none but knowledge; and neither freedom, virtue, nor knowledge has any vigor or immortal hope, except in the principles of the Christian Faith, and the sanctions of the Christian Religion.*" Let this be the breath of their public spirit; and let them know, that just in proportion to their fidelity in this, they minister also to their own purity of principle, and forward their own perfection." — pp. 21 - 23.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Female Preaching, Unlawful and Inexpedient. A Sermon by Rev. Parsons Cooke. Lynn. J. R. Newhall. 8vo.

A Sermon on the Mutual Duties of Parents and Children. By Willard Pierce, Pastor of the Congregational Church, Foxborough. Boston. Perkins & Marvin. 8vo. pp. 22.

The Preaching of the Word. A Sermon delivered at the Installation of the Rev. Charles Mason, into the Rectorship of St. Peter's Church, Salem, May 31, 1837. By Rev. John S. Stone. Salem. William Ives & Co. 8vo. pp. 23.

The Church of Rome, in her Primitive Purity, compared with the Church of Rome at the Present Day; being a Candid Examination of her Claims to Universal Dominion. Addressed in the Spirit of Christian Kindness to the Roman Hierarchy. By John Henry Hopkins, D. D., Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church, in the Diocese of Vermont. Burlington. Vernon Harrington. 12mo. pp. 406.

The True Faith Vindicated, or Strictures on "The True Believer's Defence," a work written by the Rev. Charles Morgridge, of New Bedford, against the Divinity and Deity of Christ, and Doctrine of the Trinity. By Phineas Crandall, Pastor to the Second Methodist Episcopal Church in New Bedford. New Bedford. Sidney Underwood. 12mo. pp. 70.

Appendix to "The True Believer's Defence"; or a Reply to "The True Faith Vindicated," a work purporting to have been written by Phineas Crandall, Pastor of the Second Methodist Episcopal Church in New Bedford. By the Author of the Defence. New Bedford. William Howe. 12mo. pp. 60.

Class Book of Natural Theology, or the Testimony of Nature to the Being, Perfections, and Government of God. By the Rev. Henry Fergus. Revised and Enlarged, and adapted to Paxton's Illustrations, with Notes, selected and original, Biographical Notices, and a Vocabulary of Scientific Terms. By the Rev. Charles Henry Alden, A. M., Principal of the Philadelphia High School for Young Ladies. Second Edition, revised. Boston. Gould, Kendall, & Lincoln. 12mo. pp. 252.

The Succession of the Pastoral Office. A Sermon delivered May 24th, 1837, at the Installation of the Rev. Samuel W. Cozzens, over the First Evangelical Congregational Church in Milton. By John Codman, D. D, Pastor of the Second Congregational Church in Dorchester. Boston. Perkins & Marvin. 8vo. pp. 38.

Zerah, the Believing Jew. Published in Aid of laying the Corner-Stone of Jesus' Church; a Protestant Church in the Valley of the Mississippi. New York. Protestant Episcopal Press. 12mo. pp. 286.

VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.

The Rocky Mountains; or, Scenes, Incidents, and Adventures in the far West, digested from the Journal of Capt. B. L. E. Bonneville, of the Army of the United States, and illustrated from various other Sources. By Washington Irving. Philadelphia. Carey, Lea, & Blanchard. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 248 and 248.

Gleanings in Europe. England, by an American. In two volumes. Philadelphia. Carey, Lea, & Blanchard. 12mo. pp. 270 and 260.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

INDEX

TO THE

FORTY-FIFTH VOLUME

OF THE

North-American Review.

A.

Abú Bekr, of Tombuctoo, account of, 85.

Adam, Alexander, his Latin Thesaurus, published in an abridged form, 345.

Adam, W., his second Report on the State of Education in Bengal, noticed, 254.

Addicks, Mrs., her Essay on Education, noticed, 251.

Africa, geographical works on, reviewed, 73 — population of, 75 — French expedition against Constantine in, 78 — Berēber and Shellūh languages, 82 — amphitheatre at Tysdrus, 38 — Tombuctoo, 85 — Davidson's expedition to, 89, 258.

African Association, the, 74.

Ainsworth, Robert, his Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ Compendiarius, 340, 344 — defects of his dictionary, 345.

Algiers, taken and held by the French, 76.

Algonquins, the language of the, 44.

America, Spanish literature in, 2 — edict of Charles V., respecting the importation of books into, 20 — poverty of libraries in, 138 — Ternaux's Publications on the history of, reviewed, 222 — facts in the early history of, *ib.* — Miss Martineau's Society in, reviewed, 418 — domestics in, 417.

American Antiquarian Society, Transactions and Collections of the, reviewed, 34.

American Chirographic Society, 489.

American Law, introduction to, by Timothy Walker, noticed, 485.

American Literature, Miss Sedgwick's trueness to, 481 — Henry's observations in regard to caste in, 484.

Amherst College, notice of Cushing's Address at, 230.

Amphitheatre of Tysdrus, 84.

Anthony Grumbler's Miscellaneous Thoughts on Men, Manners, and Things, noticed, 482.

Appleton, President, works of, noticed, 231 — remarks respecting him, *ib.*

Aqueducts, ancient, 394.

Arabian Nights' Entertainments, 268.

Arc, measure of the, in France, 281.

Archæologia Americana, reviewed, 34 — Gallatin's Essay, 36.

Aurelian, his conduct towards Zenobia, 396, 397 — cited respecting the destruction of Palmyra, 401.

Avellaneda's Continuation of Don Quixote, 14.

B.

Balbi, on the libraries of Vienna, 116.

Barbary States, population of the, 76.

Batavi, remarks on the, 411.

Belgians, remarks on their history, 411, 412.

Bengal, Adam's Second Report on the State of Education in, noticed, 254.

Blackstone's Commentaries, objections to, as a first book for students, 485.

Blunt, J., Shipmaster's Assistant and Commercial Digest by, noticed, 502.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Brooks, Charles, his Address before the Schools and the Citizens of the Town of Quincy, noticed, 518.
Boston Athenæum, the, 139.
Boston Natural History Society, Hubbard Winslow's Address before the, noticed, 488.
Boutourlin, Count, library of, 143.
Buccaneers, remarks on, 361.
Burney's Chronological History, 364.
Byron, Lord, Works of, common in America, 453.

C.

Calculus, remarks on the, 501.
Calepin, Latin Dictionary by, 338, 340.
Capital Punishment, M'Cormac on, 464 — Lamartine on, 494.
Carlyle, editions of his *Sartor Resartus*, in America, 454.
Cervantes, facts respecting him and his Don Quixote, 4, 6 — his earlier works, 5 — drama in his time, 9 — his contemporaneous fame, 12 — his decline and death, 16 — the original of that kind of composition, the Novel of Character, 24. See *Quixote*.
Character, the Novel of, 24.
Charlevoix, in error, respecting Verrazzano, 294, 295, 308.
Children, Miss Martineau's remarks respecting, in America, 451 — on the bodily training of, 461.
Chippewa Language compared with the Mohegan, 51.
Chirographic Society, the American, 489.
Chivalry in Spain, 17 — edict respecting books on, 20.
Church establishments, argument for, 442.
Cicero, mistakes respecting, 356.
Cimbri, remarks on the, 410.
Civilization in America, Miss Martineau's remarks on, considered, 448.
Clergy, remarks on the American, 442.
Coles, his Latin dictionary, 339.
Community, Miss Martineau on, 444.
Connecticut, historical facts respecting medicine in, 252.
Constantine, in North Africa, French expedition against, 78.
Cook, remarks on him and his discoveries, 362, 366, 377.
Cushing, Caleb, his oration at Amherst College, 230.

D.

Dante, manuscript of, 143.
D'Avezac, his Geography of Northern Africa, reviewed, 73 — remarks on it, 77.
Davidson, his expedition to Tombuctoo, 89 — his death, 258.
Dictionaries. See *English Lexicography*.
Domestics, observations respecting, 477.
Drama, remarks on the, 313, 335 — advantages of it, 314 — differs from a tragedy, 316.
Drusus, Claudius, 412.
Duponceau, prize dissertation by, on the original languages of America, 387.

E.

Education, Mrs. Addicks's Essay on, 251 — Adam's second Report of the state of, in Bengal, 254 — M'Cormac on, 469 — Lamartine on, 494. See *Female Education*.
Egypt, population of, 75 — Incidents of Travel in, noticed, 247.
Egypt, works on, noticed, 511.
Electro-magnetism, O'Shaughnessy on, noticed, 495 — discovery of, *ib.* — experiments in, 497.
England, continental literature in, 2 — historical notice of standard weights and measures in, 271, 277, 284 — unfitness of its literature to America, 477.
English lexicography, remarks on a history of, 186 — facts in the history of, 188.
Ethnography, hints on, 243.
Evidence, remarks on the nature of, 206.
Expedition, of the United States, to the South Seas, 370 — its objects, *ib.*

F.

Faber, Basil, his Thesaurus Linguæ Scholasticæ, 338.
Facciolati, Jac., and Forcellini, lexicon by, 340 — its plan, 341.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Federmann, Nicholas, Jr., Narrative of the first Voyage of, 226.
Female Education, an Anniversary Address on, by John R. Howard, noticed, 508.
Female Punishment, reprobated, 464.
Fœlix, Journal by, noticed, 508.
Forcellini, Latin Lexicon by, 340.
France, weights and measures in, 275, 279 — constitutional liberty in, 493.
Frédéric, Baron de Reiffenberg, his *Résumé de l'Histoire des Pays-Bas*, reviewed, 408.
Friendship, M'Cormac on, 471.
Frithiof's Saga. See *Tegner*.

G.

Gallatin, Albert, his Essay on the Languages of the North American Indians, 36.
Gandavo, his History of the Province of Santa Cruz, commonly called Brazil, 227 — notice of him, 228.
Garlandia, Johannes de, first compiler of a Latin Dictionary, 339.
Genoa, John of, his Catholicon, 337.
Geology of the State of Maine, 240.
Geometry, Elementary Treatise on Plane and Solid, by Benjamin Peirce, noticed, 500 — two schools in regard to, *ib.*
Germany, historical notice of, 412.
Gessner, his Latin Lexicon, 343.
Gibbon, his remarks on Palmyra and its inhabitants, 396 — defects in his History of the Roman Empire, 403.
Goldsmith, Oliver, Prior's Life of, reviewed, 91 — his incongruities, 92 — the biographical sketch prefixed to his Miscellaneous Works, 95 — his memory injured by the anecdotes respecting him, 96 — his character, 101 — his writings, 106 — his Vicar of Wakefield, 110.
Gospels, Norton on the Genuineness of the, reviewed, 206. See *Norton*.
Government and subjects, M'Cormac on the action and reaction of, 462.
Greece, Mitford's History of, 403.
Grumbler. See *Anthony Grumbler*.

H.

Hall, James, his Statistics of the West, 234 — remarks on his previous publication, *ib.*
Harvard College Library, 139.
Hassler, F. R., his Report on the Comparison of Weights and Measures, reviewed, 269.
Hawthorne, his Twice-Told Tales, reviewed, 59 — his character as a writer, 62 — national characteristic of the work, *ib.* — beauty of his style, 63.
Help, remarks respecting, and the use of the word, 478.
Hemans, Mrs., Poems of, Americans familiar with, 453, 454.
Henry, Rev. C. S., Discourse by, noticed, 484.
Hayward, George, his Discourse on the Diseases of the Knee-joint, noticed, 490 — its Appendix, 492.
Historical Societies, valuable, 142.
Hoffman, David, Miscellaneous Thoughts on Men, Manners, and Things, by Anthony Grumbler, attributed to, 482.
— his Course of Legal Study, 482.
Holden, Horace, his sufferings, 372.
Holland, Ancient History of, 408.
Howard, John R., Anniversary Address by, on Female Education, noticed, 508.
Human Nature, M'Cormac's Philosophy of, reviewed, 460.

I.

Incidents of Travel in Egypt, &c. noticed, 247.
Indians, attention to the literature and languages of the, 34 — on their origin, 35 — Gallatin's Essay on their languages, 36.
Infinitesimal Analysis, in Peirce's Geometry, 501.
Iron ore, in Maine, 241.
Instruction, elementary, by C. Brooks, noticed, 518.

J.

Jackson, Charles T., his Reports on the Geology of the State of Maine, noticed, 240.
Johnson, remarks respecting his Dictionary, 190.
Jomard, on the state of Egypt, 511.
Jones, expedition under, to the South Seas, 370 — its objects, *ib.* — his exclusion of Slidell and Wilkes, 389.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

K.

Kentuckians, remarks on, 239.
Knee-joint, Hayward's Discourse on the Diseases of the, noticed, 490.

L.

Lagrange College, Baccalaureate Address there, noticed, 504.
Lamartine, Speeches by, noticed, 493 — on Capital Punishment, 494 — on Education, *ib.*
Lane's work on Egypt, 511.
Languages of the Indians, 35 — Gallatin's Essay on the, 36 — the key of history, 40 — supposed defects of the, 42 — prepositions, 56 — particles, 57 — remarks on the *Berēber* and *Shellūh* languages in Africa, 82.
Latin Lexicography, history of, in modern Europe, 337.
Law. See *American Law*.
Leverett, F. P., his New and Copious Lexicon of the Latin Language, reviewed, 336 — his design, 357 — its character, 358 — his character and death, 360.
Lexicography. See *English Lexicography*, and *Latin Lexicography*.
Libraries, works on, reviewed, 116 — recent origin of European, 118 — their growth, 119 — annual expenditure of, 121 — numerical estimate of, 122 — size of ancient, 131 — liberality in the management of, 134 — utility of great, 135 — poverty of American, 138 — formation of, in America, 140 — library of Count Boutourlin, 143 — course to be pursued in collecting, 147.
Literature, American, Miss Martineau's remarks on, 452 — Miss Sedgwick's truth to, 481.
Live and Let Live, reviewed, 475.
Longinus, historical notices of, 395.

M.

M'Cormac, his philosophy of Human Nature, reviewed, 460 — outline of it, 461 — on the bodily training of children, *ib.* — on the reciprocal action of government and subjects, 462 — on kind of employment, 463 — on the infliction of punishments, 465 — on the intellectual part of human nature, 469 — on the moral, 470 — on the spiritual world, 472 — general remarks on the work, 474.
Mahommed Ali, condition of Egypt under, 511.
Maine, Jackson's Reports on the Geology of, noticed, 240.
Majority are right, remarks on the principle, 430.
Martineau, Harriet, her "Society in America," reviewed, 418 — her inconsistencies, 419 — her inexactness and confusion of ideas, 421 — misuses her talents, *ib.* — her earlier writings, 422 — her self-complacency, 423 — her froward and contemptuous vanity, 424 — her credulity, *ib.*, 429 — remarks on the politics of America, 425, 430 — on aristocrats and democrats, 428, 448 — on the principle that "the majority are right," 430, 436 — on the American press, 433 — on the operation of free institutions, 439 — on the support of the clergy, 441 — other political discussions by, 443 — on American sectional hatred, *ib.* — on the political non-existence of women, 444 — on community, *ib.* — on religion in America, 446 — her 2d Part, entitled "Economy," 447 — her 3d Part entitled "Civilization," 448 — on women, 450 — on children, 451 — on American literature, 452 — her inaccurate statements, 454 — general remarks respecting her and her work, 458.
Massachusetts Medical Society, Hayward's Discourse before the, noticed, 490 — observations respecting the, *ib.*, 492.
Measures. See *Weights and Measures*.
Medical Societies in Connecticut, notices respecting, 252 — in Massachusetts, 490.
Metre, the unit of Measure in France, notice of the, 280.
Miner, Thomas, M. D., Address by, noticed, 252.
Miriam, a Dramatic Poem, reviewed, 312 — commended, 316 — not theatrical, 319 — character of the plot, *ib.* — analysis of it, 320 — its faults, 330 — its diffuseness, 334.
Mitford, his History of Greece, 403.
Mobs, remarks on, 440.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Mohegans, their language compared with the Chippewas', 51.
Moral evidence, remarks on, 206.
Morality, M'Cormac's principles of, 470.

N.

Natural Science, the relation of, to Revealed Religion, by Hubbard Winslow, noticed, 488.
Netherlands, account of their ancient history, 408.
New York Review, noticed, 484.
Newspapers, Miss Martineau's remarks on, 433.
Nizolius, his Lexicon Ciceronianum, 338.
North, the. See *Sweden*.
Norton, his Evidences of the Genuineness of the Gospels, reviewed, 206 — his mode of proof, 208 — outline of the work, 209 — the Gospels remain essentially the same as they were originally composed, 212 — they are attributed to their true authors, 217 — his Notes to his work, 220.
Novel of Character, original of the, 24.

O.

Occupation, M'Cormac on, 463.
O'Shaughnessy, on Electro-magnetism, noticed, 495 — experiments by, 497.

P.

Paine, Robert, Baccalaureate Address by, noticed, 504.
Palmyra, Letters from, reviewed, 390 — history and situation of the city of, 391 — its prosperity and its ruin, 392, 398 — remarks on the work reviewed, 401, 404, 407 — contrasts Christianity and paganism, 405 — commended, 407.
Paul and Virginia, anecdote respecting, 6.
Peirce, Benjamin, his Elementary Treatise on Plane and Solid Geometry, noticed, 500 — his improvements, 501.
Peregrine Prolix, his Letters descriptive of the Virginia Springs, noticed, 256.
Philadelphia Library, 139.
Philip the Second, character of his age, 4. See *Spain*.
Philosophy of Human Nature, by M'Cormac, reviewed, 460.
Phrenology, Examination of, by T. Sewall, noticed, 505.
Physical education of children, observations on, 461.
Pickering, J., his remarks in relation to the South Sea expedition, 385.
Poor Rich Man and the Rich Poor Man, reviewed, 475.
Press, the American, 433.
Pressure and its Causes, The, 263.
Prior, his Life of Goldsmith, reviewed, 91 — its character, 97.
Punishment, female, on the infliction of, 464.

Q.

Quixote, Don, Sales's edition of, reviewed, 1 — facts respecting the composition and publication of, 6, 17 — Avellaneda's continuation of, 14 — plan of it, 22 — its didactic import, 26 — its popularity, 27 — editions of, 28 — Sales's edition, 31.

R.

Reiffenberg. See *Frederic*.
Religion, Revealed, The Relation of Natural Science to, noticed, 243, 488 — Miss Martineau's remarks on, in America, 442, 446.
Republican institutions, dangers to be apprehended from, 439.
Reynolds, J. N., his Address reviewed, 361.
Rich Enough, a Tale of the Times, noticed, 509.
Rich, O., his Catalogue of Books relating to America, 225.
Richardson, anecdote respecting his "Pamela in High Life," 15.
Richardson, C., his New Dictionary of the English Language, reviewed, 186.
Riots, remarks on, 440.
Rodman, Mr. on the South Sea Expedition, 380.
Roman Empire, defects in histories of the, 403.
Royal Geographical Society, The Journal of, reviewed, 73.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Ruffner, President, his Inaugural Address, noticed, 250.

S.

Sales, F., his edition of Don Quixote, reviewed, 1 — its character, 31. See *Quixote*.
Scheller, his Latin Lexicon, 343, 358.
Science, connexion of, with religion, 243, 488.
Scott, Sir Walter, his literary achievements, 10.
Seasons in the North, 156.
Sebastian, Benjamin, inquiry into the conduct of, 238.
Sedgwick, Miss, Tales by, reviewed, 475 — commended, 481.
Sequel to the Three Experiments of Living, 509.
Servants in America, 478.
Sewall, Thomas, his Examination of Phrenology, noticed, 505 — his argument, founded on anatomy, 506.
Shakers, Miss Martineau on the, 444.
Shaughnessy. See *O'Shaughnessy*.
Shipmaster's Assistant, by J. Blunt, noticed, 502.
Shuckburg, his attention to standard weights and measures, 284.
Sicily, Statistical Journal of, 499.
Silliman, Professor, his communication respecting the South Sea Expedition, 381.
Six Nations, Johnson's purchase of the, 235.
Slidell, excluded from the South Sea Expedition, 389.
South Seas, works on the, reviewed, 361 — history of navigation in the, *ib.* — general course of enterprise and discovery in the, 365 — the source of great interest to the United States, 369 — United States' Expedition to the, 370 — its objects, *ib.* — scientific researches in the, 378, 381, 385 — Silliman's communication respecting the United States' Expedition to them, 381 — Pickering's remarks respecting the expedition, 385.
Spain, character of the age of Philip the Second in, 4, 8 — drama there at that time, 9 — Lope de Vega, 10 — chivalry in, 17 — literary edicts there, 20 — ancient Spanish character, 25.
Spanish conspiracy, remarks on the, 237.
Spanish literature in America, 3 — romances, 19. See *Spain*.
Stage, effects of the, 317.
Standen, Hans, his History of Brazil, 229.
Stephens, Robert, his Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ, 338 — second edition, of it, 339, 345.
Strozzi Library, fate of the, 306, *note*.
Stubbes, Phillip, cited, 483.
Sweden, description of, 152 — its solitude and stillness, *ib.* — its peasantry, 153, 157 — its churches and churchyards, 153 — village wedding in, 154 — changing seasons in, 156.

T.

Tegner, his Frithiofs Saga, reviewed, 149 — facts respecting him, 150 — his use of figures, 151 — character of the translation, 159 — analysis of the work, 59.
Ternaux, works by, reviewed, 222 — his *Bibliothèque Americaine*, 223.
Three Experiments of Living, 509.
Tombuctoo, account of the city of, 85 — Abú Bekr of, *ib.* — expedition to, 89.
Trollopiad, The, 265.
Tumours, Warren on, 230.
Twice-Told Tales, reviewed, 59.
Tysdrus, amphitheatre at, 84.

U.

United States' Expedition to the South Seas, 370.
Upsala, 152.

V.

Vega, Lope de, facts respecting, 10, 11.
Verrazzano, Giovanni, life and voyages of, 293 — his birth, *ib.* — his early voyages, 294 — arrives on the coast of America, 296 — his voyage to the harbours of New York and Newport, 299 — his letter to Francis the First, 302 — his probable fate, 305 — historical document respecting him, 306, *note* — extinction of the family of, 308, *note*.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Vienna, libraries of, 117 — officers in the Imperial library at, 122.
Virginia Springs, Letters descriptive of the, noticed, 256.
Voltaire, Sewall cited respecting the skull of, 506.

W.

Walker, Timothy, his Introduction to American Law, noticed, 485 — its style and spirit, 486 — outline of the work, *ib.* — its general correctness, 487 — its Dedication, 488.
Warden, D. B., his *Bibliotheca Septentrionalis*, 224.
Ware, Professor, Jr., his two Discourses, noticed, 519.
Warren, J. C., his Surgical Observations on Tumours, 230.
Washington College, 250.
Washington, Lieutenant, cited respecting the Berēber and Shellūh Languages, 82.
Webster, N., finds fault with Johnson's definitions, 192 — remarks respecting him and his Dictionary, 194 — his orthography, 196 — his entomology, *ib.*
Wedding in Sweden, described, 154.
Weights and Measures, Works on, reviewed, 269 — standards of, 270 — history of, in England, 271, 277, 284 — change respecting, in France, 275, 279 — in America, 276, 288.
West, Hall's Statistics of the, noticed, 235.
Winslow, Hubbard, his Address on the Relation of Natural Science to Revealed Religion, noticed, 488.
Wiseman, Nicholas, his Twelve Lectures on the Connexion between Science and Revealed Religion, noticed, 243.
Women, political non-existence of, in America, 444 — further remarks on, 450 — power of intellectual, over the condition of a people, 480.
Woodbury, Levi, his Discourse before the American Historical Society, noticed, 257.
Wrifford, Anson, his Chirography, noticed, 489 — his success as a teacher, 490.

Z.

Zenobia, the queen of Palmyra, 391 — representation of her character, 395.
Zosimus, cited respecting Aurelian and Zenobia, 397.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED